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A RESEARCH STUDY TO DEVELOP AN
ARMY-WIDE EQUAL OPPORTUNITY
TRAINING MODEL

Volume II

Dale K. Brown
Human Sciences Research, Inc.

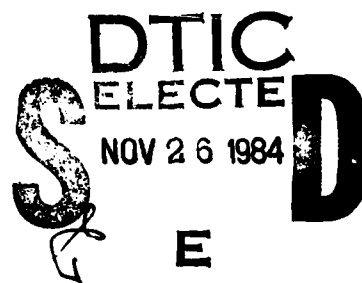ARI FIELD UNIT AT PRESIDIO OF MONTEREY, CALIFORNIA

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In 1976-77, a study of race relations/equal opportunity education and training in the Army was undertaken. One conclusion of that study was that a comprehensive model should be developed which would bring a systematic structure to all EO education and training being conducted for Army members. The present study attempts to do that. Volume I describes the three major components of the model, Individual EO Training in Army Schools, Unit EO Training, and EO Training for Unit Supervisors, Leaders and Managers. Each component is described in terms of its objectives, its target audience(s),

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Item 19 (Cont'd)

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Organizational Change
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recommended training methods and technologies, content, requirements for
delivery of training, and the recommended methods for evaluating both
the training process and the results of training and for feeding
evaluation results back to policy and operational levels. Volume II
describes the background of the study and the information and procedures
employed in developing the comprehensive model. An Executive Summary
preeedes Volume I.

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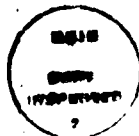
A RESEARCH STUDY TO DEVELOP AN
ARMY-WIDE EQUAL OPPORTUNITY
TRAINING PROGRAM

Volume II

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In 1976, at the request of DA/DCSPER, ARI conducted Army-wide analysis of the Army RR/EO Education and Training Program (ARI Tech Report TR-B-9). One of the findings of this research indicated there was a lack of an underlying model which unified the different elements of the program in a coherent manner. In FY 78, at the request of DA/DCSPER and US ADMINCEN, ARI initiated research to remedy this deficiency. The research reported here in two volumes attempts to provide the broad conceptual framework in which the diverse elements at all the different levels of equal opportunity directly are interrelated in a comprehensive, coherent, well-articulated and effective program. Volume I describes the three major components of the model and Volume II describes the background of the study and the information and procedures employed in developing the model. The research was accomplished under Army Project 2Q162717A767, Techniques for Improving Soldier Productivity, as an in-house effort in the FY 78 work program augmented by a contract with Human Sciences Research, Inc., under contract #DAHC 19-78-C-0019.

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF A MODEL FOR EQUAL OPPORTUNITY TRAINING
IN THE ARMY

Introduction

Background

Race relations and equal opportunity education and training in the Army were initiated hurriedly and under stressful conditions. In the 1960's, civilian society was torn by racial conflict. On several occasions, the Army was the main agent used to help restore civil order. Then, the Army itself, which had been relatively free of racial strife, suffered through a series of racial confrontations. Discipline was seriously threatened in units from Germany to Vietnam as racial polarization increased. Tension and violence between racial groups became endemic in the Army and in the other armed forces. Action on the part of the military institution was required.

One aspect of the Army's response to its racial problems was the initiation of education and training for Army personnel. The primary objective was to incorporate instruction in race relations into the Army educational system. Existing components of the system were tasked with developing courses of instruction. In addition, the Defense Race Relations Institute (DRRI) was established at Patrick Air Force Base. At DRRI, a program of instruction was developed which was to have far-reaching impact on the design and conduct of race relations education and training in the Army.

The general emphasis of the education and training was on knowledge, awareness, understanding and intergroup communication. At that time, there was no content dealing with how organizations function or, specifically, with how organizational mechanisms in the Army continue to perpetuate discrimination. There was also no specification of measurable objectives toward which the program should be oriented. Operating under pressure of time and circumstances, the education and training program failed to adequately specify methods and techniques by which objectives could be reached.

Objective

The objective of this study, was to develop a functional model for future Army equal opportunity training which would be responsive to projected Army needs. This

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model was developed with careful consideration of Army policy, doctrine, needs, and requirements, and available training technology for the immediate future. The model aimed to produce a product that meets the Army's needs. The model also took into consideration the training technology available to implement it.

The report of this study has been prepared in two separate volumes. Volume I describes the model itself; it is the primary product of the study. Volume II documents the process by which the model was developed and describes the various factors taken into consideration in its development.

Approach

In this regard the initial approach to the development of a functional model for Army equal opportunity training involved the following actions:

- Delineation of Army Policy
- Delineation of Current and New Doctrine
- Determination of Available Training Technology
- Cataloging of Existing Equal Opportunity Training Programs.

Policy

Policy is defined as basic, broad guidance embodied in affirmative statements about a given subject which prescribes the limits within which related doctrine, training, and practice must operate. The objective of this action was to identify official statements of Army EO education and training policy in an effort to determine the objectives of Army EO education and training, the Army members designated to receive training, the locations of training for each group, and the content focus of training.

Doctrine

Doctrine is defined as fundamental principles by which the military forces or elements thereof guide their actions in support of Army objectives. As such, doctrine relates to policy in that it amounts to an analytical expression of policy into mission/task specific terms. Doctrine should represent at any moment the best thought available on which to carry out the Army's missions in accordance with prevailing Department of the Army policy. The objective of this task was to determine agency responsibility for doctrinal development, the extent of commitment to these responsibilities, and the quality of documents produced from these efforts.

Training Technology

Staff agencies were consulted in order to determine available training technology. These included agencies at TRADOC Headquarters and the Combat Developments Directorate, ADMINCEN. The objective was to discuss the advantages and disadvantages of existing methods and technology in the race relations/equal opportunity context and new training methods and technology that may be of use in developing the model.

Equal Opportunity Training Programs

HSR's long association with equal opportunity training programs has generated a comprehensive familiarity with most aspects of such programs. In this regard, the training programs encountered in previous research were cataloged and the list cross-checked with TRADOC, FORSCOM and ADMINCEN to verify that the listing is complete.

Of equal importance is the reaction of the soldier to the current training programs. The soldiers' acceptance or rejection of these programs and the reasons therefore were carefully considered in the design of a model for future Army EO education and training. In this regard, all relevant race relations research data were reviewed to itemize troop reaction and chain-of-command reaction to training programs.

After these actions were taken it was possible to define more clearly the parameters within which the model would be developed. Not only were the technical limits defined; the doctrinal thrust of the entire Army training process was defined as well. In addition, a number of tasks were specified to take acount of the information produced by these preliminary actions.

Tasks

The tasks described below were designed so as to aid in the development of a functional model for equal opportunity education and training in the Army which defines, for each career level, an appropriate set of training objectives and standards in the EO area; which links together the EO education and training experiences of each individual Army member into a cohesive pattern of knowledge and skills commensurate with that individual's level of responsibility; which aritculates the individual learning objectives with organizational change objectives; and which defines an administrative component for operating the EO education and training system.

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Review of Literature

The initial task in development of the model was to conduct a review of relevant bodies of social science literature in an effort to identify an applicable theory of organizational change. The search for a theory of change applicable to EO began with a thorough review and analysis of the implicit theory underlying the current model and resulted in a critique of that model's strengths and weaknesses for bringing about change in the institutional aspects of the treatment of military personnel. The literature search further focused on identifying heuristic theories which have been tested through empirical research and are applicable to the type of change expected and required as a result of EO education and training. The final product of this task was an adaptation of several existing theoretical approaches to the conditions which are projected to exist within the Army over the next few years.

Describe the Army's Education and Training System

A prerequisite for development and application of a functional EO education and training model is an understanding of the overall educational system within which the model will be applied. Therefore, the objective of this task was to develop a detailed description of components of the Army's education and training system to include those components where EO education and training is (or might be) conducted. This description considered training for enlisted personnel, and for non-commissioned, warrant, and commissioned officers, at both basic and advanced levels of individual education and training, as well as unit training.

Define Measurable Objectives

An indispensable element of a viable EO education and training model is a set of clearly defined objectives, stated in such a way as to allow measurement to determine the extent to which they have been achieved. This set of objectives is necessary not only for evaluation and feedback purposes but also for purposes of defining required content for each element in the model, which, in turn, partially determines the education and training methods and technologies to be used.

A set of objectives was defined for each component of the Army EO education and training system. The objectives were defined in terms of the desired outcomes of training in each of several potentially applicable areas, including: knowledge of Army and DOD policy concerning EO; knowledge of the Army's programs and procedures for handling EO matters;

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knowledge of the basic concepts necessary to the understanding of what EO is and how it can be achieved; knowledge of the practical significance of cultural differences in terms of interpersonal communication and in terms of unit mission readiness; knowledge of the relationship between EO and unit mission readiness; knowledge of the relationship between personnel decisions made at the individual level and the overall statistical portrayal of EO at the organizational and institutional levels; knowledge of individual rights and responsibilities in the Army.

The applicability of each type of objective varied from one group to another and one level or type of education and training to another, depending on the duties and responsibilities of those being trained. At the individual level, knowledge and behavior objectives were foremost. At unit level, the objective of diagnosing, addressing, and solving interpersonal and organizational problems related to EO within the unit took precidence over the more academic objectives. Consideration of these specific applications was crucial to the definition of measurable objectives.

**Define EO Education and Training
Content Requirements.**

The objectives defined in the previous task generated a detailed set of specifications of the content elements seen as necessary to the achievement of these objectives. Initially, general domains of content were identified for each type of education and training objective; e.g., DOD and Army policy, statistical indicators of EO status, guidelines for informed decisionmaking, etc. These domains were identified from all available sources including Army EO documentation, DRRI materials, organizational effectiveness bibliographies, and non-Army sources as well. This compilation of EO education and training materials was reviewed in conjunction with the training objectives to insure that the training materials recommended were selected from each domain in such a way as to optimize their relevance to those objectives. Wherever there appeared to be gaps between content requirements and available materials, these gaps were defined and the content needs described in detail to allow development of new training materials for this specific purpose.

During this task, also, it was desirable to begin consideration of the phasing and sequencing of various elements of the training model to insure that materials to be used in all components of the Army's education and training system were compatible with each other, and that each successive level of training was based on the foundation laid at prior levels,

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without undue repetition, but with the element of reinforcement of basic knowledge of principles and concepts necessary to the achievement of EO objectives throughout the Army. It is the lack of a cohesive structure which is one of the most criticized aspects of current Army EO education and training. These actions were taken to insure a tightly constructed EO education and training model.

Define EO Education and Training
Methods and Technologies

The matching of methods and technologies to content followed directly from the preceding task. The method to be employed was an integral part of the content decision for a given level of training. When a definition of appropriate content was reached, it was mandatory to approach individual and unit EO education and training in a number of different ways; e.g., lecture, discussion, self-paced learning, etc. It was also mandatory that the same content be packaged differently for different groups at different levels. It was considered extremely important that each specific application of EO education and training be considered on its own merits, and that each element of the model be expressly tailored to a specific audience at a specified level to address discrete objectives in regard to a given content domain.

Develop a Comprehensive Delivery Component

The manner in which EO education and training gets carried out has implications for both the education and training model itself and for the training of the personnel who will implement the model. In this regard, careful consideration was given to specifications for trainers in each element of the model. Training needs were analyzed in relation to the requirements for the trainer and the level of trainer preparation was matched to the training objectives. Recommendations for modifications of DRRI and UDL training and the inclusion of pertinent elements in service school curricula were offered in an effort to bring the model to a more advanced state of development by specifying a desired level of training for those who ·will implement the model.

Develop an Assessment and Feedback Component

It is not uncommon for a training program to become static and stagnant if it does not have the benefit of an evaluative process to provide assessment and feedback concerning it success in achieving its objectives. This is especially true in a sensitive, volatile and dynamic topic area such as EO education and training. Efforts on this task were designed to develop an evaluative process with three components, a process evaluation component, an impact assessment

component, and a feedback component. These components provide a substantial basis for adaptive change.

The process evaluation component identifies a need for change that is based on the perceptions of training session participants on the quality and adequacy of these sessions for addressing a stated topic. The impact assessment component identifies a need for change that is based on the perceptions of trainers and independent observers on the extent to which stated objectives have been achieved. The development of standardized evaluative instrumentation is recommended for these components as is a systematic plan for scheduled collection of specific types of data using that instrumentation.

Both these components require the design and implementation of long-term evaluation studies. For maximum utility, these studies must begin at the same time as the implementation of training under the model begins. In addition, recommendations were offered for the acquisition of baseline data *before* the new program starts so that comparisons can be made. It was considered extremely important that, from the beginning, these components be used as an integral part of the model, and not pulled out of the closet as a reaction to some future demand for accountability.

The feedback component outlines a systematic, continuous and comprehensive utilization of data for decisionmakers at all levels. Decisionmakers at local (school, installation), MACOM, and DA levels are to be involved in the synthesis and analysis of these data, such that a continuous feedback loop is created whereby adaptive changes in the EO education and training program can be made in a timely manner.

CHAPTER II

DESIRED CHARACTERISTICS OF AN
EQUAL OPPORTUNITY TRAINING MODEL

A working definition of what characteristics a useful EO training model should have was derived from a number of sources, including:

- a study of equal opportunity training in the Army sponsored by the Army Research Institute:[1]

- an evaluation of race relations training in the Army and Air Force conducted by the General Accounting Office;[2] and

- a thoroughgoing critique of the current Army model for EO education and training.

The results of these efforts are described below.

Army EO Education and Training
Circa 1976-77

As part of the Army's continuing effort to keep abreast of rapidly changing conditions to which EO education and training must be responsive, an evaluation of the program was commissioned. This evaluation, which began in 1976, looked at all aspects of EO training in the Army, including: unit EO training; training in Army service and professional schools; and training for assignment to primary duty as an EO staff member. Some

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[1] Robert L. Hiett and Peter G. Nordlie. *An Analysis of the Unit Race Relations Training Program in the U.S. Army.* ARI Technical Report TR-78-9B. Alexandria, Va.: U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral Sciences, 1978.
   William S. Edmonds and Peter G. Nordlie. *Analysis of Race Relations/Equal Opportunity Training in Korea.* McLean, Va.: Human Sciences Research, Inc., 1977.
   Marcia A. Gilbert and Peter G. Nordlie. *An Analysis of Race Relations/Equal Opportunity Training in USAREUR.* ARI Technical Report, TR-78-B10. Alexandria, Va.: ARI, 1978.
   Robert L. Hiett. *An Analysis of Experimental Race Relations/Equal Opportunity Training.* McLean, Va.: Human Sciences Research, Inc., 1977.
   William S. Edmonds and Peter G. Nordlie, Human Sciences Research, Inc., and James A. Thomas, ARI. *Analysis of Individual Race Relations and Equal Opportunity Training in Army Schools.* ARI Technical Report, TR-78-B15. Alexandria, Va.: ARI, October 1978.
   Byron G. Fiman, Ph.D. *An Analysis of the Training of Army Personnel at the Defense Race Relations Institute.* McLean, Va.: Human Sciences Research, Inc., 1977.
   Peter G. Nordlie, Human Sciences Research, Inc., and James A. Thomas, ARI. *Analysis and Assessment of the Army Race Relations/Equal Opportunity Training Program: Summary Report of Conclusions and Recommendations.* ARI Technical Report, TR-78-B8. Alexandria, Va.: ARI, 1978.

[2] General Accounting Office. *Major Changes Needed in Air Force and Army Race Relations Training Programs; Report to the Congress of the United States.* Washington, D.C.: GAO, 1976.

of the conclusions of that program analysis are summarized below (and in Chapter I of Volume I).

First, equal opportunity training is required at all levels of schools in the Army and in all units. In other words, EO training is seen as a universal educational experience required by all Army personnel and not just a specific educational experience for some subgroup of the total.

Second, there exists no underlying theoretical model which unifies and makes coherent the many diverse elements of the program.

Third, there appears to have been an unquestioned acceptance of some assumptions about suitable methods for EO training—small group guided discussions being the preferred method—and that a failure in communications was one of the root causes of racial tension. It seems to have been further assumed that racial harmony was a major objective of unit race relations training, but racial harmony is never clearly identified.

Fourth, the more recent policy statements have begun to include goal statements concerning the elimination of discrimination which tended to be absent from earlier goal statements. Still, the policy statements tend to exhibit an almost schizophrenic character with respect to whether policy is oriented toward awareness or toward the elimination of discrimination. Within the same policy statement, one can find substantial evidence in support of either view.

Fifth, the original policy on race relations/equal opportunity training and all subsequent modifications do not appear to have been based on any hard evidence that the training content and methods required could or would achieve the intended objectives.

In general, the reports on which these conclusions were based were heavily critical of EO training being conducted in the schools and in the units. They concluded that less than half of the training which was required was actually being conducted and almost all of the training being conducted was of poor quality and not responsive to the Army's needs.

A key problem for EO unit training resulted from the 1974 revision of AR 600-42 which placed the responsibility for conducting unit training on the chain of command. This change placed responsibility for EO training in the hands of those having the least preparation in how to do it, and removed it from the hands of those having maximum preparation— DRRI graduates who, for the most part, are now doing very little training. There was much evidence in the study that, as carried out by company commanders, unit training was a very low priority matter and largely a "paper program."

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Still another critical issue is that, to the extent that EO unit training was reaching Army personnel, it was primarily at the level of E5 and below. It is definitely not reaching all levels, as the policy and doctrine intended and required. Thus, leaders—who by virtue of their role in the organization have the most power to effect change—are the least likely to participate in unit training.

The Army's EO education and training program calls for training in Army schools as well as unit training in all units. Overall, there appears to have been far more emphasis on EO *unit* training than on *individual* training in the schools. It was concluded from the study of EO training in Army schools that on the whole, EO instruction was considered a low priority subject matter and was only reluctantly incorporated into course curricula. Only a few of the schools had implemented the *Uniform Service School Standards for Race Relations/Equal Opportunity Instruction*, which had been issued by TRADOC nine months previously. EO courses in the schools were generally not taught by EO-qualified instructors and the training was still largely oriented toward creating awareness. There had been little progress in tailoring training courses to specific job needs of students. Staff and faculty of schools tended to view EO training as an unwanted orphan thrust upon them—a low priority, directionless program. There is an increasing demand by school faculty and staffs to eliminate EO instruction given as a *block* of instruction and to split up the content and incorporate it into other blocks of instruction dealing with leadership and personnel. EO training in Army schools gives no evidence of being vigorously implemented by a coherent approach which faculty, staff and students find meaningful and useful. This means that an important opportunity for individual education and training regarding many aspects of EO, especially as it concerns leaders, is being lost. With so little individual EO education and training occurring in the schools, the entire burden of EO training is by default laid on unit training, a task to which unit training alone is not equal. Most clearly, unit training is an appropriate locus for only some parts of the total EO education and training task. An effective EO education and training program will require a more balanced division of labor between school training and unit training.

Another conclusion from the study was that there is a need to rethink EO doctrine and to formulate a more comprehensive, coherent and articulated statement of doctrine which clearly interrelates the various components of the program. While the policy statement itself appears adequate, and the component program descriptions clear, there is no explicit concept of how they all tie together to achieve the policy goals. In other words, doctrine—which at any moment represents the best thought available as to *how* policy should be carried out—is not adequately formulated.

It was a conclusion from the study that most of the failings, problems and inadequacies of the EO education and training program stemmed directly from the fact that chain-of-command personnel have *not* been adequately prepared to carry out the responsibility with which they have been charged. The single greatest lack in the whole program has been the overall failure to educate and prepare Army leaders.

At about the same time that this Army-sponsored study was going on, the U.S. Congress commissioned the General Accounting Office to perform a review of military training in race relations and equal opportunity. The GAO consultant's recommendations included the following:

1. A top level policy making conference should be convened to determine the goals and specific objectives of, and the degree of support for, race (or human) relations training. Criteria for course design and program evaluation should be among the specific outcomes of such a conference. The viability of the following recommendations presumes that a decision to have an effective program with an identifiable scope and mission will be reached here.

2. Crystal clear directives regarding command responsibilities should be delineated and means for continuous monitoring and evaluation of race relations programs should be strengthened considerably.

3. The structure, quality and scope of the DRRI itself should be examined objectively and in terms of the findings from Number 4 below.

4. An assessment of the nature, situational variation and frequency of on-the-job race (and sex) discrimination in the services should be conducted, producing the specific training objectives of the training element of the Race Relations (or Human Relations) program.

5. Additional strategies, beyond training, should be devised so as to reduce the potency of organizational (structural) racism and sexism. These would include reviews of recruiting, job classification, advancement, and career management, followed by systematic revisions which would effectively eliminate *de facto* discrimination.

6. Additional resources and appropriate instructor training, as determined in the above decisionmaking activities should be devoted to a broadened effort.

7. All personnel who have regular occasion to interact with members of other races or the opposite sex should be required to attend and respond to the program's courses and other directives.

8. All command level personnel should be required to attend and respond to a general educational session above and beyond the specific training and organizational redesign activities prescribed, so that they may be aware of the issues on a larger level. These general "management" sessions would focus on the nature of the issues, the policy of the military, and means for supporting the training effort.

9. Significant representation on the part of nonwhites and women should be an exemplary part of all planning and policy making, at least in an advisory capacity. This might be accomplished through the EEO offices, but not necessarily.

10. The Army and Air Force should begin to view the racism/sexism issue as seriously as it views the continuation of military strength in any other context, availing themselves of the necessary social science resources. Given such a serious commitment, and the availability of social science expertise, the following specifics should be addressed:

   a. In sound training programs, there must be measurable training objectives. The content and training procedures must be clearly and measurably related to those objectives. No other content or procedure is admissible.

   b. This training must be job relevant, since the military is not in the business of general public education for its own sake. The objectives laid out must, therefore, be directly related to efficient performance of military jobs. In the present context, this implies a focus on reducing the occurrence of race (and sex) discriminatory events which produce obstacles to such performance.

   c. The concepts of brotherhood, psychic sharing, and the touchy-feely procedures which often accompany such approaches have no direct relevance to the discrimination reduction issue at hand, and should be discarded. All other conceptual components not directly related to the scope of the training effort should also be discarded.

   d. Courses should directly address the existence of race (sex) discrimination in context of the tasks performed on-base, and the military's need to eliminate these events. There should be no question about the course's relevance to the jobs of trainees and command expectancies about trainee performance.

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e. Courses should be conducted so as to revolve around the following questions, and in this order:

   (1) What is racism (sexism)?
   (2) How does it work?
   (3) What does it look like in this working context?
   (4) How can it be eliminated (reduced, neutralized)?

f. Trainees should then be given a set of change tools and a strategy for discrimination reduction which allows for variation in theme (by location, job function, etc.) but which specifies progress amenable to independent measurement.

g. The entire training design, including the specific expectations given trainees, should *follow from* and be tailored to a behavior specific and situationally stratified assessment of problematic and race-determined (sex-determined) interactions on the job.[3]

There are certain common threads which run through both the ARI and the GAO reports. For example:

• Both sources indicate a maximum necessity for measurable objectives, clear cut directives, specification of guidelines and resources and other activities designed to promote the unequivocal operation of race relations training.

• Both sources indicate the necessity for adequate and relevant theoretical formulations. These formulations should specifically focus on the critical issues involved in the operation and maintenance of an effective race relations training program.

• There is general agreement that the "training" being conducted should be examined in an effort to specify methods and techniques that clearly indicate what training *does* consist of and what it does *not* consist of.

• Statements on program content suggest that training should be designed that is directly relevant to the job of the particular person being trained.

• Finally, there should be a delineation of the specific responsibilities for the operation and maintenance of an EO training program in addition to the continuous monitoring and evaluation of the program as a means for measuring effectiveness and providing such information to policy makers.

[3]"Current Status of Race Relations Training in the U.S. Army and Air Force," Robert D. O'Connor, Consultant (April 1976).

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Desirable Characteristics of an EO Training Model

A major conclusion reached at this point was that a whole new approach to EO education and training should be developed and substituted for the existing approach. The new approach should provide a coherent, overall program which interrelates the training received at entry points, school training at various levels, and unit training. Also identified were a number of characteristics which would be desirable for such a model to have. These characteristics are listed below.

Leader Training—Primary emphasis in the program should be to effectively train Army leadership at all levels in awareness of their EO responsibilities and knowledge of how to carry them out.

Job Related—Training at every level should be geared to the jobs of persons at that level.

Progressive Training—Training received at one level or time should be reinforced and built upon by training at the next level or time.

Method of Instruction Appropriate to Content—Training methods should be related to content. Using small group seminars to impact essentially cognitive and factual information is as inappropriate as attempting experiential learning in a one hundred-person group.

Specific Objectives Clearly Established for Each Course—Each course should have specific, behavioral objectives.

Content Related to Training Objectives—Course content should be scrutinized to ensure that each part is necessary for the achievement of the training objectives.

New Content—New course content at many levels needs to be developed in order to meet new training needs regarding institutional discrimination, the issue of "reverse discrimination," the leader's role and responsibilities in the EO program, and the basic nature of the equal opportunity problem in the Army.

Greater Emphasis on Individual Training—The training program should be more balanced than it has been in that individual training in schools should better prepare students for the EO problems they will encounter in the field.

Elimination of Negative Aspects of Course Content—Course content should be scrutinized to eliminate aspects which tend to produce negative responses from students with no compensating positive effect. Past research has repeatedly found a need to make a course content:

- less repetitious
- less black-white oriented
- more relevant to Army life
- less centered on minority history and culture
- more relevant to current unit problems
- less slanted to benefit minorities
- less blaming of whites.

Many such changes could be made without impairing the achievement of training objectives.

EO Training More Closely Tied to Affirmative Actions—The training program should be more explicitly related to and supportive of the Affirmative Actions component of the EO Program. Heretofore, the components have been too unrelated and independent of each other.

Integral Feedback and Assessment System—The training program should have a built-in feedback and assessment system which provides a continuous assessment of the extent to which the program objectives are being achieved. Such a system should also be used to sense the need for changes in the program as a function of altered situations or the arising of new needs. This could provide a built-in mechanism for accomplishing adaptive change in the training program.

These would appear to be minimum characteristics one would consider in developing a new approach to EO training. Such a new approach would not necessarily lead to an expanded program requiring any greater resources than the present one, but would lead to a significantly more productive program in the long run.

To summarize, then, the EO education and training model proposed here has the following components:

- Measurable Objectives—Quantitatively measurable statements of the desired conditions or state of affairs the program is designed to achieve.

- A Theory of Organizational Change—A statement of the assumptions and propositions about organizational change which underlie the specific program.

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o   Techniques and Methods—Specifications of the methods and techniques by which the training will be conducted.

o   Content—Specification of the content of the training curricula.

o   Time Frame—Statement of when and for how long various blocks of training are to occur.

●   Delivery System—Delineation of the specific responsibilities for delivering the training; qualifications and training of instructors; articulation of delivery system with Army organization.

●   Feedback and Assessment System—Specification of means for systematically measuring the effectiveness of the system and routinely providing such information to the Delivery System and policy makers.

●   Means for Adaptive Change—A set of procedures or guidelines for utilizing feedback information to continually modify and upgrade the program systematically.

CHAPTER III
THE ENVIRONMENT OF ARMY
EQUAL OPPORTUNITY TRAINING

Development of the comprehensive model of Army EO training that is proposed here can be best understood if viewed in the context of the total EO Program in the Army. This total context or equal opportunity environment has the following major components: EO policy; EO doctrine; EO training resources and technology; and current racial climate. These are discussed below.

EO Policy and Doctrine

As of June 1977, Army policy on equal opportunity was consolidated in a revision of AR 600-21, which combined and updated the policy statements from old AR 600-21 on EO policy and AR 600-42, concerning race relations training. The current emphasis is on EO as a single program with two equal and interacting components, an *Affirmative Actions Component* and an *Education and Training Component*. Table 1 summarizes Chapter 3 of the current policy statement on EO education and training.

Table 1
Summarization of Army Policy on EO Education
and Training[4]

Objective: To promote equal opportunity by developing maximum potential of all available talents and resources; by fostering harmonious relations among all personnel under Army control; and by providing positive motivation of all personnel.

Medium of Training: Formal training in Army training centers, Army service schools, USAR schools, Army area schools, and individual units; special training of Army leaders and managers; and unit training sessions.

Levels of Training and Their Locations:
1. Entry level: BCT/BT/OSUT; Officer Basic Course.
2. Individual education for Army leaders, managers, and *supervisors* (officers, warrant officers, non-commissioned officers, and their civilian counterparts).

[4] Source: AR 600-21, *Equal Opportunity in the Army*, Chapter 3.

  a. NCOES, NCO Academy.

  b. Officer Advanced Courses, CGSC, and any other leadership
    and development courses.

  c. Sergeants-Major Academy, Army War College, special
    orientation courses for senior officer, enlisted, and civilian
    personnel.

  d. Senior personnel in intermediate and Senior Service College and
    the New General Officer Orientation Course; plus periodic seminars
    for general officers, higher commanders and key staff personnel and
    designated civilian supervisors.

3. Unit Training.

Training Content:

1. Entry level: Familiarize Army personnel with the DA Equal Opportunity
  Program; make trainees and students aware of racial, cultural, and gender
  differences and attitudes as they relate to Army activities; inform them
  of what the Army will expect of them in the equal opportunity area.

2. Leader, manager and supervisor training: Familiarize leaders with their
  responsibilities under the Army EO Program; and develop their sensitivity
  and skills for dealing with all matters pertaining to EO within their
  authority.

  a. Recognition of potential problem areas; methods for preventing
    EO problems; ways of dealing effectively with EO problems.

  b. All of content mentioned under a., plus: how to develop an
    effective EO program.

  c. Education concerning DA EO Program and how to direct
    a successful program in larger and more complex organizations.

  d. Contemporary problems in management of EO programs.

3. Unit Training: Inform unit members of policies and activities concerning
  EO, familiarize unit members with racial, ethnic, cultural, and gender-
  related differences; impress upon unit members the importance of open
  communication for unit effectiveness. (A more complete description of
  "Guidelines for Unit EO Training" is contained in Appendix D of AR
  600-21.)

    To the extent that the conditions to which this policy statement was directed
still prevail, and to the extent that current policy is compatible with a comprehensive ap-
proach to EO education and training for all Army members on a career-long basis, the pro-
posed education and training model has been designed to complement and support that
policy. This does not mean, however, that AR 600-21 was the sole or even the primary basis
for the model. Rather, the model was developed as a separate entity, based on the Army's
current and future needs, and was then phrased in such a way as to be compatible with the
regulation wherever there was no violation of those diagnosed needs.

EO Education and Training Doctrine

Doctrine is defined by the Army as "fundamental principles by which the military forces or elements thereof guide their actions in support of national objectives."[5] Doctrine relates to policy in that it is the analytical expression of policy into mission/task-specific terms. Doctrine should represent at any moment the best thought available on which to carry out the Army's missions in accordance with prevailing Department of the Army policy.

Race relations/equal opportunity policy is given in AR 600-21, Equal Opportunity Program in the Army, 20 June 1977. Paragraph 1-5c defines the mission of the Education and Training component of the EO

"... a continuing Army-wide effort to impart to all members of the Army an awareness concerning equal opportunity matters, to develop positive attitudes toward the program, and to foster good relationships among individuals and groups."

Normally, doctrine is developed by the service school most directly concerned with the subject. Infantry tactical doctrine is formulated at the Infantry School, Fort Benning, Georgia; division and larger unit operational doctrine at the Command and General Staff College, Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. This practice has several advantages. The staff and faculty at the service schools are selected from the best-qualified, most articulate officers. These officers frequently come to the schools from line units where doctrine has to be applied, and are thus thoroughly cognizant of any mismatches between doctrine and reality. The service schools also normally have the boards responsible for technological development of each branch's equipment. Doctrine could thus be modified as necessary whenever new equipment was fielded. The schools also served to disseminate new doctrine quickly both through classroom instruction and by the branch magazines. Doctrine is formally documented as field manuals, training circulars, training programs and ARTEPs.

In the field of RR/EO education and training, doctrine and the responsibility for doctrinal development are hard to pin down. Paragraph 1-6c tasks the Commanding General, U.S. Army Training and Doctrine Command (TRADOC) with the responsibility of development of Army doctrine and associated training materials for equal opportunity.

[5]AR 310-25, *Dictionary of Army Terms*, 15 September 1975.

It further authorizes him to designate an appropriate agency
responsible agency for development of all Army equal opportunity instructions and
assorted training materials.

In visits to Headquarters, Department of the Army, Office of the Director of
Equal Opportunity, this paragraph was referenced when the question of doctrinal respon-
sibility was raised. At TRADOC Headquarters, officers from the Office of the Deputy
Chief of Staff for Training and from the Equal Opportunity Office stated that, although
the new AR 600-21 did not specifically authorize TRADOC to designate an agency to de-
velop doctrine, *de facto*, the Administration Center (ADMINCEN) at Fort Benjamin
Harrison, Indiana, was responsible, just as it had been under the previous version of the
regulation.

At ADMINCEN, officers and civilians at the Combat Developments Directorate
said that doctrinal development had been delegated to the ADMINCEN detachment at the
Defense Race Relations Institute. On paper, this detachment had two sections, one for
instruction, the other to develop doctrine and training materials. Unfortunately, the
detachment had never been fully staffed and those who were at DRRI had to concentrate
on instruction.

Furthermore, under the current reorganization, the ADMINCEN detachment
will become an integral part of DRRI, and thus no longer responsive to ADMINCEN.
ADMINCEN proper does not have the staff to develop doctrine. In summary, doctrinal
development has fallen through the proverbial cracks, and no one agency admits
responsibility.

What current doctrine does exist appears in a document titled, *Uniform Service
School Standards for Race Relations/Equal Opportunity Instruction*, published by
ADMINCEN. The cover letter which distributed this document to all TRADOC Service
Schools, the Command and General Staff College and the Sergeants-Major Academy is
dated 17 December 1976. The document itself is dated 25 December 1976.

Table 2 illustrates the state of current doctrine in RR/EO education and
training. It shows policy as written in AR 600-21, doctrine as depicted in the *Uniform
Service Schools Standards*, and current practice in the service schools and units as
observed during field visits and as described in meetings at HQDA, TRADOC and
ADMINCEN. References are to paragraph and page numbers in the AR or the
Standards.

Table 2
Summary of Army EO Education and Training Policy, Doctrine and Practice

POLICY	DOCTRINE	PRACTICE
P. 1-2, Para 1-6e(4). Commanding General, TRADOC. . .assures that EO Education and Training, appropriate to the needs of students and trainees, is provided in all-service schools and training centers.	Outlines required RR/EO training for BT/BCT (p. 1); NCO Advanced Course (p. 2), SGM Academy (p. 3), Officer Basic (p. 4), Officer Advanced (p. 5), C&GSC (pp. 6-7). Cover letter, Para. 5. . .compliance with standards will be subject to monitoring by HQ, TRADOC.	Training is being given at BCT and SGM Academy. Training is being given at most service schools, but not always according to the outline given in the Standards. One school is not giving any training at all. HQ, TRADOC has not monitored RR/EO training.
P. 3-1, Para 3-1c . . . Instruction will focus on inter-personal relations; the impact of institutional discrimination; equality of opportunity; and contemporary factors influencing unit harmony, effectiveness and mission accomplishment.	Cover letter, Para 2 . . . What is required is that every soldier in the Army be apprised of his share of the total Army effort to reduce intergroup friction and disharmony.	
P. 3-1, Para 3-2. Entry level training. . . to familiarize Army personnel with the DA Equal Opportunity Program, to make trainees and students aware of racial, cultural and gender related differences and attitudes as they relate to Army activities, and to inform them of what the Army will expect of them in the equal opportunity area.	P. 1 BT/BCT Required RR/EO tasks: - Identify how cultural differences/misconceptions (real or perceived) cause tension within a unit/section. - Identify instances of prejudice or discrimination. - Identify authority/authorities to whom discrimination should be reported. OBC Required RR/EO tasks: Same as BT/BCT plus: - Decrease racial tension/unrest within a unit/section. - Identify instances where the proper assignment and/or utilization of women soldiers have been violated.	Two hours training at BT/BCT, subjects: DOD and DA EO Programs and why they were established; importance of proper communication; impact of prejudice and discrimination in today's society; sexism. Two to four hours training at most OBC, focused on communications and recognition of unit race relations problems.
P. 3-1, Para 3-3f. Education for non-commissioned officers and officers will consist of formal instruction given at NCOES, NCO Academy, Officer Advanced courses and the Command and General Staff College, and any other leadership and development courses.		No training given at Primary or Basic NCO courses nor at Drill Sergeant School.
P. 3-1, Para 3-3b. Stress will be placed on the recognition of potential problem areas; on methods and techniques for preventing such problems from arising; ways of dealing with such problems when they do arise; and, in the case of officers, how to develop and conduct an effective EO Program.	NCO Advanced Course Required RR/EO tasks: - Decrease racial tensions/unrest within a unit/section. - Identify instances where the proper assignment and/or utilization of women soldiers have been violated. - Make personnel decisions affecting military personnel based upon local RR/EO Affirmative Actions Plan (AAP) guidance. - Make personnel decisions affecting DA civilians based upon Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) Plan of Action (POA) guidance. —Continued	Subjects taught at NCO Advanced: - Recognition of motivational and performance problems in the military. - Familiarization with preventive measures and solutions available. - Identification of indicators of racial unrest and appropriate corrective action.

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POLICY	DOCTRINE	PRACTICE
	Officer Advanced Course Required RR/EO tasks: Same as last two for NCO Advanced Course plus: - Take appropriate action on complaints of discrimination.	Three to eight hours given at some OAC. Subjects include: - problem recognition; - distribution of power; - culture and climate; - application of standards; - conflict resolution; - the Army EO Program; - quality control of personnel; - controlled communication.
	CGSC Required RR/EO tasks: - Identify items/goals in a unit AAP which are not being achieved. - Identify items/goals for inclusion in a revised AAP. - Determine racial climate within a unit/ section. - Determine appropriate action(s) necessary to reduce racial tension/unrest within a unit/section. - Identify instances where the proper assignment and/or utilization of women soldiers have been violated.	Ten hours training consisting primarily of group problemsolving session. Emphasis on institutional discrimination. Thirty-six hour elective on ethnic studies, which produces heightened racial awareness.

P. 3-1, Para 3-3c. Formal instruction in EO will be given senior officer, enlisted and civilian personnel at the Sergeants Major Academy, Army War College. . . . Emphasis will be on . . . the DA EO Program and on how to direct a successful program in larger and more complex organizations.	SGM Academy Required RR/EO tasks:
	- Identify items in a unit AAP which are not being achieved.
	- Identify goals for inclusion in a revised AAP.
	- Determine racial climate within a unit/ section.
	- Determine appropriate action(s) necessary to reduce racial tension within a unit/section.
		In 1977, eight hours of instruction with these objectives:
		- List two major contributions made to American culture by each of the following ethnic groups: Blacks, Spanish and Indian.
		- Interview a junior enlisted minority soldier and
		  - determine if that soldier has perceived any racism/discrimination in the military.
		  - determine if that soldier has personally experienced any racism or discrimination in the Army.
		  - identify for the interviewee at least one appropriate avenue available for resolving a complaint of racial discrimination in the Army.
		  - determine two leadership conditions which the interviewee feels would improve discipline and minimize racial tension within the organization.
		The above may be changed to conform to the Standards.
		
		At the Army War College, no separate block of instruction in RR/EO. Seminars and lectures are integrated into instruction given by the U.S. and World Environment Department and by the Command and Management Department.

POLICY	DOCTRINE	PRACTICE
P. 3-1, Para 3-4. Unit Training. a. Commanders are responsible for the training of their units in EO matters... the thrust of unit training will be toward informing unit members of policies and activities concerning EO; familiarizing unit members with racial, ethnic, cultural, and gender related differences so that such differences can more readily be accepted as positive aspects of American and Army life rather than negative; and impressing upon unit members the importance of open communication... as essential to unit effectiveness.		In CONUS, RR/EO training is given sporadically. Quality of training is low. Senior NCOs and officers rarely attend. In Korea, seminars are held even less frequently than in CONUS, though attendance is better. In USAREUR, unit RR/EO training is given more often than in CONUS, but is still a low priority item. In all areas, emphasis is on racial awareness.

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Available Training Resources and Technologies

One assumption underlying the development of the comprehensive EO education and training model is that the resource and technology requirements of the model should be kept within the bounds of currently available personnel and equipment to the extent that this can be done without violation of the basic and fundamental needs addressed by the model. It would do no good, for example, to recommend that every Army member above the grade of E-3 be sent to DRRI for eleven weeks of training. Nor would it be feasible to recommend that all training be produced in the form of high quality movies or video tapes, since this outreaches resource limits.

It was necessary then, to look at the two aspects named above, personnel resources and technological (equipment) resources as part of the framework for the model.

Human Resources for EO Training

At the present time, the three primary sources of personnel to plan and implement EO education and training in the Army are: DRRI graduates; Unit Discussion Leader Course (UDLC) graduates; and members of the chain of command. The first group constitutes an appropriate resource for any type or level of EO training; UDLs and unit leaders are appropriate only for unit training and not for the more formal types of experiences required for leaders in the schools and locally. A fourth source of EO instructor personnel is made up of Army service school instructors, who are not DRRI graduates. One of the theses of the proposed model, however, is that a service school instructor charged with conducting instruction on EO for leaders should be a DRRI graduate.

The numbers of DRRI graduates available for service as instructors, either in the schools or at local levels, is, of course, limited. Furthermore, it appears that these numbers will not increase in the foreseeable future and are perhaps on the decline. It would be unfortunate if this trend were such as to undermine the potential effectiveness of the proposed model. It is recommended that a detailed study be conducted as soon as possible to extrapolate from the personnel requirements of the model in whatever form the Army ultimately adopts, to requirements for attendance at DRRI.

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A further implication of the model proposed here is that both unit leaders and UDLs undergo additional or upgraded training to prepare them to carry a greater share of the unit EO training load in a more effective manner than has been prevalent in the past. Recommendations are made elsewhere in this report for improved EO Training for Unit Supervisors, Leaders and Managers (see Volume I, Chapter V) and for modification and upgrading of the local UDLCs (see Volume I, Chapter IV and Volume II, Chapter V).

Equipment and Technology for EO Training

The subject of training methods and technologies is discussed later in this report (Volume II, Chapter V), and general-level recommendations for the implementation of training are described in conjunction with each component of the model (Volume I, Chapters III, IV, V). To the extent possible, advantage should be taken of the technologies currently in use in Army training in areas outside of EO as well as in the EO area. Table 3 summarizes the most commonly used technologies and critiques them.

Current Racial Climate

The two aspects of the total environment described above within which Army EO education and training must occur have to do with policy and with resource availability, respectively. The third major aspect, racial climate, has to do with the human element of the education process and has implications for the content of EO education and training for selected target audiences.

From time to time over the past several years, the Army Research Institute has sponsored surveys of the attitudes, opinions, beliefs, and perceptions of Army members concerning race relations and equal opportunity matters. When the results of these surveys are followed over time, from about 1972 through 1978, some important trends are discernible. These findings include the following:

- Large perceptual differences continue to persist between majority and minority persons in the junior enlisted ranks. Most minority soldiers, especially black soldiers, continue to perceive discrimination against them at both a personal and an institutional level while most white soldiers disagree with that assessment and instead often see themselves as victims of "reverse discrimination."

Table 3
Training Technologies Currently in Use for Army Training, with
Potential Applicability to EO Education and Training

Technology	Description	Advantages	Disadvantages
Formal Instruction -Class/ Seminar/ Discussion Group	Classroom instruction with designated teacher/discussion leader. Uses classic training aids, i.e., chalkboard, still and movie projectors. Class may be lecture, discussion or seminar.	Dynamic interchange between instructor and students. Class can be paced to students' ability. Training aids are in current inventory.	Requires qualified instructor to prepare and present class. May be difficult to find common level of interest/ability in class. Class frequently turns out to be for benefit of a few students, with others not paying attention.
-Closed Circuit Television	Expanded version of above with larger studentbody in different rooms. With TV cameras or microphones in the several classrooms, all students can participate.	Larger classes possible. Details of training aids can be seen close up. Dynamic interchange between instructors and students. Utilizes most qualified instructor.	Large class may be counterproductive. Student participation limited.
SELF-STUDY CENTER			
Training Extension Course (TEC) Programmed Text Mode	Booklet with brief sections on each teaching point followed by multiple choice questions. Each choice is followed by directions to a different page. If student selects correct answer, page gives explanation of correct answer and directs student to next question or to new teaching point. If student selects wrong answer, page explains why answer is wrong and directs student to return to question and to try again.	Gives student immediate feedback. Student can review wrong answers if he wants fuller explanation of question. Student can review material as he answers questions.	Student can skip through answers until he finds correct one. Not easily adapted to complex subjects.
TEC- Audio- Visual Mode	Audio/visual training with a Bessler QC projector. The QC projector uses a 16mm film cassette and a tape cassette. The visual portion can be movie, slow motion, stop action or freeze frame. This is controlled by inaudible signals on the tape. Questions are inserted in freeze frames, at which point the	May be used for individual (with built-in screen) or group (using wall projection mode) instruction. Stop action and freeze-frame can be used for emphasis. Cassettes prepared at central agency allow standardized instruction. Student gets immediate feedback on answers to questions.	Short lengths of film and tape limit duration of lesson. Only correct answers displayed. Long lead time required to produce lessons

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Method	Description	Advantages	Disadvantages
	audio/visual stops until the student pushes the restart button. Issued to every battalion in Army, active as reserve component.		
TEC (Audio Mode)	Tape cassette with lecture. Questions may be asked, with student stopping tape while he prepares answer.	Cassette prepared at central agency allows standardized instruction. Student receives immediate feedback in answers.	Lecture format. Difficult to review specific portions of tape only.
Video Tape	Lesson prepared on reels or cassettes.	Same as QC. Well suited for expository materials. Video tape player standard issue to all units.	Limited chance for questioning of students.
Computer-Assisted Instruction	Essentially a computerized program text using a Cathode Ray Tube display instead of a printed page.	Can handle training from extremely simple subjects (basic grammar) to complex (advanced engineering). Student can review at will. Can have many more options than programmed text.	Not standard issue equipment. Requires one terminal per student. Programming classes difficult and expensive.

o   There are large perceptual differences on EO issues between junior
     enlisted personnel and Army leaders, and these differences are
     compounded by racial differences within the leader ranks:

     —   on questions concerning the equality of the Army as an institu-
          tion and the role played by leaders in the Army, leaders,
          regardless of race, express more favorable perceptions than do
          junior enlisted personnel .

     —   on questions where race discrimination is treated more generally,
          without specifying the role of leaders, minority leaders answer
          less favorably than do white leaders, but not so negatively as
          minority junior enlisted personnel.

     —   Army leaders who are white see a much different reality than do
          black junior enlisted personnel. There is virtually no area related
          to EO where these two groups are in close agreement.

     —   Army leaders who are minority group members are more optimistic
          on EO matters than black junior personnel, but less so than either
          white junior personnel or white leaders.

●   Command support for the EO Program is reported by EO staff to be
     present, for the most part, at higher command echelons, with decreasing
     support for and emphasis on EO at the lower echelons. At company
     level, there is reputed to be a widespread perception that the Army's
     racial problems are all in the past, and that the EO Program has outlived
     its usefulness.

●   Army leaders still tend to focus on personal discrimination at the lower
     enlisted levels when talking about EO, and tend to be unaware of or not
     fully attuned to the role they, as leaders, play in the process of institutional
     discrimination.

●   Much of the increasing racial tension is coming from whites who are per-
     ceiving increased reverse discrimination.

●   Chain-of-command personnel tend to believe that the racial situation is a
     far less serious problem than do junior enlisted and EO personnel.

●   Feelings of "reverse discrimination" on the part of white soldiers
     continue to reach high levels and are apparently still on the increase
     in some areas. This negative perception of the Army EO Program is
     a decidedly disruptive influence.

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o   As the EO education and training program filters down through the chain of command, it tends to lose the characteristic of command support because it is being implemented by personnel who, although they will follow directives, do not understand the nature of the program or perceive its importance to the accomplishment of their mission.

o   At the unit level, where the program is implemented, it has tended to acquire a strong negative image. This is not likely to be overcome as long as those *responsible* for implementing the program share that image. To change that fact, the chain-of-command personnel must first be educated such that they understand and accept the goals of the program.

o   At the company level especially, where the commander is deluged with high-priority requirements that compete for his attention and time, the problem is how to get that commander to understand that his failure to carry out equal opportunity responsibilities can directly and adversely impact on his unit's ability to perform its mission and on the commander's ability to do his job. Only when commanders become convinced of that fact are they likely to attend to and carry out their equal opportunity responsibilities.

Although these findings reflect a composite of findings from various locations and commands, they appear to experienced observers to be descriptive of the racial climate throughout the country.

Summary

These four factors, then—Army EO policy, Army EO doctrine, human and technological resources for training, and racial climate in the Army—provide the environment within which Army EO education and training must occur and to which the comprehensive model proposed here is addressed.
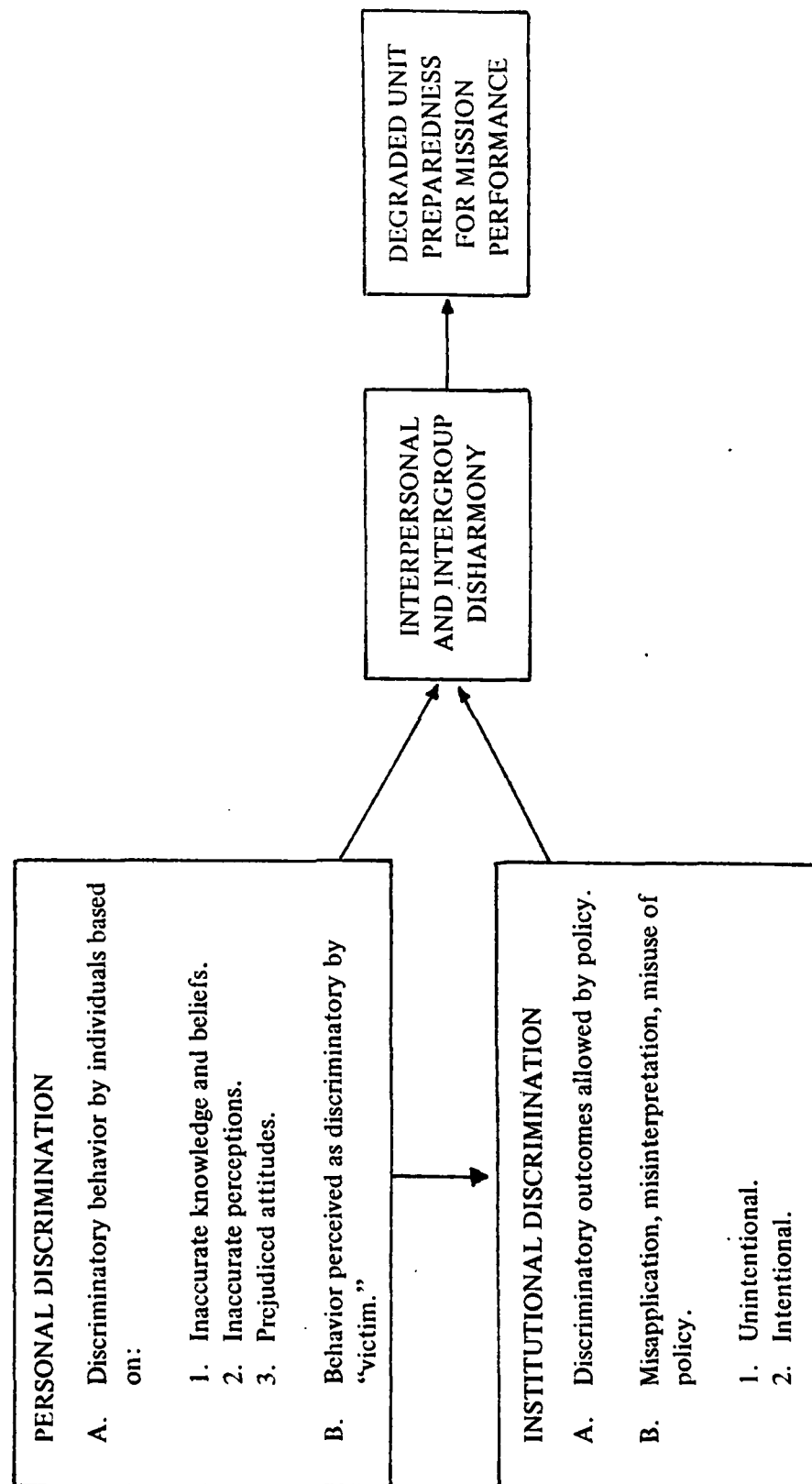
CHAPTER IV
LESSONS LEARNED FROM THE LITERATURE

In the process of developing a new model for EO education and training in the Army, an assumption was made that there should be a "fresh start" made. In other words, the implicit model in operation at the present time should not be viewed as a constraint on the new model. To be realistic, of course, it must be recognized that the Army has limited resources to bring to bear on this problem. As these limitations impact upon the training model, then, they are constraining factors. But within resource constraints the structure, the objectives, and the methods of EO education and training were not viewed as in any way fixed. In an effort to broaden the scope of consideration in these areas, one task that was undertaken was an examination of certain aspects of the professional literature with direct relevance to EO education and training.

As is often true in any such undertaking, the first problem faced was that of defining the nature and scope of the literature to be examined. What is the objective of this task? To what questions are answers being sought? To begin to answer these questions, an elementary model of the relationships among personal and institutional discrimination and mission readiness was developed. This model is illustrated in Table 4. The assumption is made that personal discrimination is a function of any one or more of several factors, including inaccurate knowledge and beliefs, inaccurate perceptions and prejudices. There can also be situations in which an individual perceives that he or she has been a victim of discrimination, although this cannot be objectively verified. Institutional discrimination is brought about by policy or by misuse, misapplication or misinterpretation of policy.

Either form of discrimination can cause disharmony between or among different groups. Actual or perceived racism, sexism or other forms of discrimination on a personal level can cause tension or overt conflict between blacks and whites, Latinos and blacks, Cubans and Mexican-Americans, men and women. At the same time, any individual or group having the feeling that institutional discrimination is occurring and deciding to act on that feeling, can exercise either of two behavior options: go through channels to try to resolve the problem formally; or use informal methods, which often means taking out one's

Table 4

Relationships among Personal and Institutional Discrimination
and Mission Readiness

DEGRADED UNIT
PREPAREDNESS
FOR MISSION
PERFORMANCE

INTERPERSONAL
AND INTERGROUP
DISHARMONY

PERSONAL DISCRIMINATION

A.   Discriminatory behavior by individuals based
     on:

     1.   Inaccurate knowledge and beliefs.
     2.   Inaccurate perceptions.
     3.   Prejudiced attitudes.

B.   Behavior perceived as discriminatory by
     "victim."

INSTITUTIONAL DISCRIMINATION

A.   Discriminatory outcomes allowed by policy.

B.   Misapplication, misinterpretation, misuse of
     policy.

     1.   Unintentional.
     2.   Intentional.

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frustrations on one's peers, since the power structure is less accessible. Personal and institutional discrimination often occur simultaneously, and the result is usually interpersonal and intergroup disharmony. This cannot help but add to degradation of unit effectiveness.

Throughout this conceptualization, the dual nature of EO problems recurs. Individual people behave, but organizations must respond to that behavior. Where, then, is the best place to target EO education and training efforts? The answer has got to be: both individuals and organizations must be affected if EO education and training is to be successful.

The following sections summarize what was learned from the literature. They should not be viewed as "literature reviews" in the strictest sense, because citations of specific studies are not included. This is simply a summary of conclusions. A bibliography pertaining to literature on individual change appears as Appendix A. This is followed by Appendix B, a literature review with references, on methods for bringing about organizational change.

Individual Change

The systematic, scientific study of individual human behavior is the province of the discipline of psychology. Unfortunately, there appears to be little linkage between psychological theory and the practice of race relations and equal opportunity training. Hayles notes that:

> . . . the links between theory and practice are tenuous. Practitioners
> do not refer to basic psychological theory in their selection, design, and
> use of rr e/t techniques. Researchers do not have race relations practi-
> tioners in mind for the eventual application of their theories and research.[6]

However, during the development of the model, it was determined that certain elements of psychological theory *do* provide a relevant linkage to the design and implementation of RR/EO training programs.

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[6]Robert Hayles, "Inter-Ethnic and Race Relations Education/Training," paper presented at the Society for intercultural Education, Training and Research, Third Annual Conference (February 1977), p. 12.

What is it that we are trying to change? In an immediate sense, all that is necessary is behavior change. Whereas once EO education and training in the Army was directed at attitude change, this approach has been de-emphasized, and probably justifiably so, for several reasons: attitude change does not necessarily lead to behavior change; the Army has no mandate to change anyone's beliefs, only to establish and enforce conduct; and obvious efforts to change attitudes to which one is committed often lead not to change, but to solidification of the original attitudes. There is some evidence, on the other hand, that if counter-attitudinal behavior can be elicited, and a public commitment to that behavior established, attitude change may follow in such a way as to "justify" the behavior.

How does one elicit behavior change? The term "behavior modification" has been used to describe the use of rewards, punishment, reinforcement and extinction to shape behavior. Although this term has developed a negative connotation in some circles, the principles it encompasses have promise for changing discriminatory behavior. But basically, behavior modification is not an educational technique. It is a change strategy based on resource control and differential exercise of positive and negative sanctions. The link to EO education and training, then, is not a direct one. But it is an important one in that each Army member must know what is expected of him or her in behavioral terms, i.e., which forms of behavior are acceptable and which are unacceptable; each Army member must know what the consequences of acceptable and unacceptable behavior are; and every Army leader must be trained in the application of positive and negative sanctions to reinforce acceptable and extinguish unacceptable behavior. These are functions of EO education and training.

In a similar vein, the concepts of modeling, imitation, and identification in the realm of social behavior can be of value in behavior change efforts. If each Army leader were educated as to the value of setting a behavioral example for subordinates, and were trained in correct and effective ways for establishing a model for imitation and identification, this, too, would add to the arsenal of strategies aimed at eliminating discrimination.

The contact hypothesis has received much attention by social researchers. Both the potential positive effects of interracial contacts and the potential negative effects have been studied. Hayles concludes that some success is likely if ". . . one unobtrusively attempts to maximize the facilitating and minimize the inhibiting conditions . . . ."[7] A valid

[7]*Ibid.*, Hayles, page 5.

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question in this context, however, is: To what extent can artificial exercise of contact principles be unobtrusive in the context of an EO education or training session? More appropriately, the Army must see to it that the positive conditions occur spontaneously on a frequent basis as a fundamental, routine, and accepted aspect of Army life. More than an education question, this is an overall institutional problem, involving questions like: How does the Army attract and retain minority officers at all levels?

One of the initial assumptions portrayed above in Figure 4 is that faulty knowledge contributes to personal discrimination. Knowledge-based approaches have long been a standard part of EO change efforts. If inaccurate knowledge is corrected, and if inaccurate perceptions of reality (for example, perceptions based on faulty stereotypes) can be made more accurate, much of the basis for unintentional discriminatory behavior will have been removed. Knowledge-based approaches cannot be the sole basis for EO change at the individual level, any more than any other single strategy can be said to be its sole basis. But they are an important element.

Other change strategies have been suggested as potentially valuable for discrimination related education and training. Such tactics as catharsis or confrontation have been used in the Army and elsewhere, but that approach seems to have been largely responsible for the negative image the Army EO program now has. Confrontation tactics appear to have outlived whatever usefulness they may have had for Army EO education and training. "Belief similarity" approaches have been studied, but ultimately found to have rather little effect on racial attitudes or behavior. Group encounters as a means to greater self-awareness have apparently been successful in eliciting race-related changes, but such strategies are beyond the scope of the Army's EO resources, not to mention the inappropriateness of most such approaches to a highly structured organization such as the Army. Psychotherapy has also been suggested as an appropriate response to racism, but again its applicability to the Army situation is questionable.

Thus, from a myriad of possible approaches to the elicitation of acceptable, nondiscriminatory behavior by means of practical and reasonable education and training approaches, only a relative handful seem to have promise for the proposed model. These include: some form of educational effort using a behavior modification model; the creation of acceptable behavioral models in the form of Army leaders; and the dissemination of factual knowledge aimed at decreasing the levels of ignorance of one group about others and of all groups concerning the dynamics and causes of discrimination.

Organizational Change

Organizational change has come into its own in recent years as a specialty within social and behavioral science. Organizational development (or, in the Army, organizational effectiveness, OE) practice consists of a body of knowledge and a multitude of methods for modifying the ways in which organizations operate so as to produce some end result, usually increased productivity. Because the Army is an organization made up of numerous levels of successively smaller organizational units, and because EO is a function of managers within those units, it is appropriate to look at the OD/OE literature in the present context.

Generally, what is found is three types of approaches to modifying organizations to effect changes in organizational outcomes. These are: structural change; changes in procedure; and strategies aimed at changing the human element of the organization in some way.

Structural change, or the modification of the form that is taken by the organization, is of limited value in the context of a military organization. To some extent, the roles played by various members of a military organization can be modified for certain purposes, but a company, a battalion, a brigade, a division, a corps, a major command are still fixed entities, or at least they are such within the limits of our efforts. A major command may be called CONARC or it may be called FORSCOM or TRADOC, but it is still a major command, performing certain functions necessary to the successful operation of the total organization.

At another level, structural change might result, for example, in the assignment of EO responsibilities to someone other than school-trained EO specialists. These responsibilities might go to commanders (as is ostensibly the case at present), to additional duty personnel, to the IG, the AG, or to the Organizational Effectiveness Staff Officer. None of these options is seen either as necessary nor as desirable at this time; neither are such changes within the scope of the effort being reported here. They are not amenable to inclusion in an education and training model.

Changes in organizational processes, on the other hand, can be productive in the Army EO setting and can be taught to Army members in the forum of an EO education and training model. The processes inherent in any organization which are likely candidates for change in Army EO activities are decision making and communication.

Every day every Army leader from a fire team leader to a records handler to the Chief of Staff makes numerous decisions which have impacts on other members of the Army. It is the process by which decisions get made, particularly the element of "personal discretion" which is often left open after all policy considerations are taken into account, which is the mechanism through which institutional discrimination occurs. To the extent that Army leaders are made aware of that fact, and can be provided with the information they need to improve their decisions and the experiences they require in which to practice acceptable decision making techniques, the education and training process works toward the objective of eliminating institutional discrimination. These should be integral elements of the model.

Communication within the unit has been recognized as important to the maintenance of adequate mission readiness and performance and of acceptable EO climate. When individuals in the unit fail to communicate or, what is sometimes worse, miscommunicate without knowing it, performance cannot be up to accepted standards. This is as true in areas where discrimination is concerned as it is in communication between a forward air controller and a fire base. Perceptions of discrimination can occur when the chain of command fails to communicate or miscommunicates about its EO policies and its objectives and methods for achieving them, or about procedures employed in making routine decisions. Of course, communication about objectives, policies, methods and procedures presumes that the leaders have explicitly defined these things for themselves. This is a possible function of EO education and training as well; i.e., to teach Army leaders how to arrive at policy statements, objectives , methods and procedures and also how to communicate these things to unit members.

If *all* unit members are informed as to what qualifications are required for promotion from E4 to E5, and know when and how they can get the experience and training they need to be promoted, this is superior to a word-of-mouth type of communication where some get the word and some don't. This is especially true where it is suspected by unit members of one race that those of another race got the word when they themselves did not. Likewise, it is better when unit members know that daily duty assignments are given out in a specific manner that is spelled out in advance and can be verified, rather than thinking that the first sergeant is playing favorites with his personal discretion. These types of communication issues are suitable for EO education and training.

People-oriented organizational change efforts are, for the most part, individual attitude and behavior change efforts and were discussed earlier. Changes in leader

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behavior. however, especially in the ways that leaders interact with each other and with unit members. have an organizational aspect in that the leaders operate and manage the organization. Argyris,[8] for example. has observed that much of the failure of organizational change efforts can be attributed to failure of the chief executive officer (CEO) of an organization to change his or her behavior, even though the impetus for a program of change came from that very person. The CEO requires change in others, but fails or refuses to change his or her own behavior.

How many times has it been said that the Army's EO Program must be a "top-down" program, i.e., it must have the active and visible support of the Army's top leaders, if it is to be successful? This is no less true at each successively lower echelon of command. The company commander must be as visibly committed to his unit's EO Program as the Chief of Staff is to the Army's. It has been a major shortcoming of the Army EO Program that lower echelon commanders, those leaders at points in the organization where the most decisions get made and where policy is implemented, do not have the enthusiasm for the program that their seniors demonstrate. Mainly, this is a problem of education. Most commanders honestly do not understand the true fundamental meaning and purpose of EO and cannot give it the emphasis nor the knowledgeable support it deserves. This is an appropriate objective for the EO education and training model.

Other people-oriented change strategies are also available and must be accounted for in the model. For example, maximum use of human resources across the board and in the EO Program is a change strategy and can be a target for education and training efforts. Educating the unit commander as to the value of the Unit Discussion Leader and educating the UDL to perform more effectively are logical objectives of the model. Educating all leaders that efficiency and unit effectiveness are enhanced when all available human resources are considered, not just whites or blacks or Asians or men or some other subgroup of the total pool, is also a logical goal.

Again, we see that a myriad of potential organizational change strategies narrows down to a relative handful of considerations appropriate for inclusion in a model for EO education and training throughout the Army.

Another aspect of the OD/OE literature has to do with methods, techniques and "technologies" for eliciting the desired kinds of individual and organizational change. These are discussed in Chapter V of this report.

[8]C. Argyris. "The CEO's Behavior: Key to Organizational Development," in *Harvard Business Review*, March-April 1973.

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A Possible Link between Individual and
Organizational Change

The theory of cognitive dissonance provides a possible theoretical underpinning for linking individual changes resulting from training experiences to organizational change.

The theory of dissonance posits an inherent strain toward consistency or consonance. Individual opinions and attitudes exist in clusters that tend to be experienced as consistent. When an individual perceives or experiences an inconsistency in his attitudes, beliefs or behavior, he is said to be in a state of cognitive dissonance. Consistent behavior is labeled consonant. As developed by Festinger, there are two basic hypotheses in the theory of dissonance:

1. The existence of dissonance, being psychological uncomfortable, will motivate the person to try to reduce the dissonance and achieve consonance.

2. When dissonance is present, in addition to trying to reduce it, the person will actually avoid situations and information which would likely increase the dissonance.[9]

The theory of dissonance examines the relations between elements known as "knowledges" (beliefs, values, attitudes). It also examines the relations between these elements and behavior. We will discuss the theory in two parts. The general reduction of dissonance will be discussed in terms of the character modifications that would result from an effective EO training program. We will also discuss dissonance reduction as it relates to decision making and show implications of chain-of-command training for organizational change.

In general, if dissonance exists between two elements, this dissonance can be reduced by changing one of these elements. There are various ways that this can be accomplished.

When dissonance exists between an element corresponding to an attitude or belief concerning racial groups and a behavioral element, the dissonance can be reduced by changing the behavioral element. According to Festinger, given that an attitude is responsive to "reality," if the behavior of an individual changes, the attitude element corresponding to this behavior will likewise change. In our case, a new recruit with substantial anti-minority feelings may generate, through his basic training, modifications of the behavior and

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[9]Leon Festinger, *A Theory of Cognitive Dissonance* (Stanford. Calif. Stanford University Press, 1957), p. 3.

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feelings of this recruit toward minority groups. The "reality" toward which these changes are directed is concerned with the requirement in the military environment of constant inter-action and cooperation with members of other racial groups.

It is important to note that since a change of behavior may be difficult, it may also be difficult to reduce dissonance by *consciously* changing one's action or feeling. For example, a prejudiced E-5 attending NCO school may have difficulty changing his negative cognitions concerning minority groups even in the face of course material that indicates racial discrimination on the part of NCO's. Firmly entrenched attitudes are difficult to change, and when negative implications of these attitudes are pointed out, they are usually rationalized in some manner. In this case, the NCO chose to avoid dissonance by ignoring information that would likely increase the dissonance.

It may be possible to affect an *unconscious* change in cognitive elements through an effective EO unit training program. Even though this NCO may bring these negative cognitions to his assigned unit, the EO unit training program may encourage the develop-ment of skills such as the detection and solution of EO problems, the defining and enforcing of EO policy, and a working knowledge of affirmative action responsibilities. The attainment of these skills—and the behavioral commitment that will be generated—may serve to reduce the inconsistency between values and attitudes, especially those that concern minority groups.

The general reduction of dissonance may also be achieved by adding new cognitive elements. Here we are concerned with a person actively seeking new information that would reduce the total dissonance while, at the same time avoiding information that might increase the existing dissonance.

For example, if dissonance existed between some cognitive elements concerning the effects of discrimination in the selection of minorities to attend senior service schools and cognition concerning the behavior of continuing to select limited numbers of minorities, the total dissonance could be reduced by adding new cognitive elements that are consonant with the limited selection procedures. A person might actively seek out information that indicates that most minorities are not qualified to attend senior service schools. At the same time, he would avoid information that indicates institutional discrimination in selection policies and individual discrimination in carrying out these policies. Although total disson-ance has been reduced by selective exposure to information, the existence of dissonance is still pervasive.

A substantial reduction in dissonance can be achieved by effectively designing a chain-of-command training program. Courses in this training program would be designed to, first, eliminate the illustion that minorities are not qualified for additional training. Material in these courses would contain specific evidence (AFQT scores, SQI ratings, etc.) that blacks are as qualified as majority group members. Second, these courses would be designed to illustrate the discriminatory impact of various selection procedures. It should also be pointed out that discrimination may be practiced by an individual in a particular position who is a decisive factor in how policy is implemented within his sphere of influence. Finally, chain-of-command personnel would be alerted to the specific behavioral commitments necessary to eliminate discrimination and the perception of discrimination. In this case, overt compliance to EO principles and practices may generate attitudinal modifications concerning different social groups.

The theory of cognitive dissonance also has implications for the psychological aspects of making a decision. As Festinger has pointed out, where a decision must be taken, some dissonance is almost unavoidable, since the cognition of the action taken and the opinions which may point to a different action may not be fitting. Dissonance, then will be the result of the simple act of having made a decision. Consequently, one may expect to see manifestations of pressures to reduce dissonance after a choice has been made. There are three main ways in which this might be accomplished:

1. changing or revoking the decision;

2. changing the attractiveness of the alternatives involved in the choice; and

3. establishing cognitive overlap among the alternatives involved in the choice.[10]

The discussion will deal with them in that order.

In terms of changing the decision, ". . . reversing the decision . . . is not an adequate way of reducing dissonance since it would simply reverse which cognitive elements were dissonant or consonant with the cognition about the action."[11] It *is* possible, however, to reduce dissonance by revoking the decision psychologically. In most instances this would

[10]*Ibid.*, p. 42.
[11]*Ibid.*, p. 46.

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consist of a person admitting no responsibility or acting as if there were no responsibility for the choice that had been made. For example, a company commander, aware that there are few minorities selected for special training (Ranger. Airborne, etc.), continues to select majority group members in greater numbers than minority group members. The difference in cognitions concerning the action taken may be reduced by claiming no responsibility for the apparent discrimination since he went "by the book" in choosing candidates. What he is *not* aware of is how individual characteristics come into play when making these decisions.

In this case, courses in a chain-of-command training program should be designed to reduce distortions in the understanding of different social groups which usually result from unresolved problems within the individual. These problems usually revolve around inconsistencies in values and attitudes concerning minority groups. The primary objective of this training program would be to generate a more accurate people-oriented assessment of that which is external to the individual. A derivative of this objective would be organizational change which would be illustrated by a reduction in indicators of institutional discrimination—especially those which concern career development.

In developing the theory of dissonance, Festinger has stated that the most direct and probably most usual manner of reducing post-decision dissonance is by changing the attractiveness of the alternative involved in the choice.

> "Since the dissonance exists in the first place because there were cognitive elements corresponding to favorable characteristics of the unchosen alternative and also cognitive elements corresponding to unfavorable characteristics of the chosen alternative, it can be materially reduced by eliminating some of these elements or by adding new ones that are consonant with the knowledge of the action taken."[12]

For example, a member of a company-sized unit has been accused of being drunk and disorderly in the company area. Normally this person would be punished by receiving an Article 15. The company commander, however, may decide to administer only an oral reprimand. It may have been desirable to give the Article 15 in order to establish discipline within the unit. It may not be desirable *not* to give an Article 15 since other company members may feel that they can get away with infraction of rules and not get punished. The company commander may change the contradictory cognitions about the action taken by recognizing the individual's good work record and overall performance. In addition, this

[12]*Ibid.*, p. 44.

may be the first incident of its kind and evidence suggests   it will not happen again.
This change of cognitions makes these elements more consonant with knowledge of the
action taken.

Finally, post-decision dissonance can be reduced by establishing or inventing cog-
nitive overlap. According to Festinger, ". . . one way of establishing cognitive overlap is to
take elements corresponding to each of the alternatives and to put them in a context where
they lead to the same end result."[13] For example, consider the decision to include blocks
of instruction on institutional discrimination in NCO training rather than basic training.
Not including this instruction in basic training does not mean that the soldier is not made
aware of potential discrimination in actions taken by NCO's. He may receive some material
on this topic in discussions of individual discrimination given during basic training. The dis-
cussion of institutional discrimination can be appropriately placed in NCO training courses
since this issue may be more important for those about to assume additional responsibilities
that are guided by institutional policies. In this case, an awareness of the negative effects of
discrimination is achieved in both courses of instruction. And, of course, it is desirable that
this awareness will lead to an increased behavioral commitment to EO principles and prac-
tices.

We have now discussed the theory of cognitive dissonance as it relates to the
results of an effective EO training program and as it relates to situations in which a specific
decision must be made. We again emphasize the necessity to change contradictory cogni-
tions for different levels of personnel who occupy different levels of responsibility. Since
there are different levels of mental ability to change inconsistent cognitions about an action
taken, it is necessary to totally saturate the EO Education and Training Program with in-
struction aimed at a substantial reduction in dissonance. This will lead to individual changes
in values, attitudes and beliefs as well as changes in organizational policies and practices
which tend to be contradictory and subject to different interpretations.

[13]*Ibid.*, p. 46.

CHAPTER V

A MODEL FOR ARMY EQUAL OPPORTUNITY TRAINING

The preceding four chapters have established the background and the conceptual framework within which the proposed model for EO education and training in the Army was developed. The objectives of Army policy on EO in general and education and training in particular were reviewed and defined as oriented toward the elimination of personal and institutional discrimination and the effective operation of the EO Program at all levels. The existing model was analyzed and critiqued, using materials and information from numerous sources. The strong and weak points of the current model were identified. The total Army environment within which the new model must operate was evaluated, including current racial climate and available resources for EO education and training as well as Army policy and current doctrine on EO. The desirable characteristics of a comprehensive EO training model were defined within this context. The literature on organizational development and social psychology, particularly as they apply to the design of attitude and behavior change strategies relevant to EO in the Army, were reviewed, and conclusions drawn from that review about appropriate targets of change and methods for producing the desired changes.

All of this input was then merged into a total model designed to mesh with ongoing Army education and training efforts and designed to reach every member of the U.S. Army with information and skills relevant to the EO aspects of effective job performance. The remainder of this chapter summarizes the nature of this model.

Training Methods

That branch of behavioral science theory and practice which has come to be known as "organizational development" in the civilian world and "organizational effectiveness" in the Army, has led to the identification and development of numerous strategies for bringing about changes in organizations through education and training. This would seem to be an appropriate starting point in the search for education and training methods applicable to EO in the Army since one major objective of EO training is to bring about organizational, as well as individual, change. The goal of these changes is to eliminate discrimination from the Army. The content of EO education and training experiences can

be spelled out in a fair amount of detail. The question remains, however, what training methods and technologies are currently available that appear to have promise in the area of Army EO education and training. In order to address this question, a review of OD/ OE methods was carried out, as was a review of the technologies available to support those methods in the Army context.

There are a variety of ways in which these methods can be classified for ease of description. One categorization[14] subdivides "structured experiences" into eleven types, as follows:

- Ice breakers
- Interpersonal communication
- Group problem solving
- Awareness expansion
- Personal feedback
- Competition and cooperation
- Intergroup communication
- Dyads
- Leadership
- Group processes
- Organization development

Each of these major subsets has numerous exercises within it which can serve to achieve any of a variety of objectives. It appears that any or all of these subsets might have some applicability to EO education and training. A total of 183 distinct exercises or experiences is listed, which is not inappropriate, given the nature of the OD consultant's work and the variety of objectives that might be encountered in it.

In the more restricted world of organization development in the Army, however, the total range of objectives is somewhat more limited and even the Army OESO might not be expected to possess skills and experience in each of these 183 exercises. Organization change in the area of Army EO has even more limited objectives and, given the constraints on the amount of time available for the training of EO specialists, it would not be expected that the average OOU would possess all of this information and experience.

To simplify the discussion of training methods and technologies, some terms must first be defined and differentiated. When reference is made to a training *method*, this means a generic approach to training, such as lecture, guided discussion, structured group exercises, etc. The terms "approach" and "technique" are also employed in this report as

[14]University Associates, Inc. *The 1976 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators.* University Associates, Inc.. 1976, pages 4-6.

synonymous with the term training method. An *exercise* is a particular structured experience, with specified individual and/or group outcome objectives, based on a set of rules and procedures which are relatively fixed and invariable from one occasion or group to another. A training *technology* is a mechanism for delivering training, such as a movie, a slide or multi-media presentation, use of a Cue-See projector, video tape cassette, and so forth. The technology is the hardware side of the delivery mechanism.

For purposes of further simplification, the following categorization of training methods is proposed:

- **Academic methods**—This group of methods includes traditional educational approaches such as lecture, readings and information dissemination approaches of all kinds; these are primarily *cognitive* (knowledge) methods.

- **Experiential methods**—This group involves the student as an active participant (rather than as a passive recipient) in a structured experience designed either to illustrate the working of a group or individual process, or to provide insight into a real-life situation after which the exercise is modelled or upon which it is based. These methods may be either *affective or cognitive* in content and objectives.

Table 5 represents an effort to describe in a summary fashion the process of matching a training method to a particular type of content, and selecting a technology which is appropriate to both the content and the audience. This is neither assumed nor intended to be a definitive treatment of the topic, but is rather an illustrative listing to identify "typical" methods and applications.

Within the Comprehensive EO Training Model proposed here, efforts have been made to identify appropriate training methods for particular blocks of content. This has, however, been confined to the level of general commentary rather than specific prescription of a particular method for a particular block. It is a working assumption of this model that such specific tailoring should be done at a very detailed level only after further development of the model has begun, i.e., as part of the process of developing programs of instruction for the various schools and other components of the model.

The three major components of the total model are: Individual EO Training in Army Schools; Unit EO Training for Unit Supervisors, Leaders and Managers. These components are described below

Table 5

Illustrative Examples of Training Methods and Their Corresponding Technologies and Potential Applications

Method	Technology	Content Application
A. Academic Approaches		
1. Lecture	Instructor or guest speaker; taped presentation; film strip; movie; slides; multi-media presentation	Army EO policy; cultural diversity; definitions and concepts; etc.
2. Programmed instruction	Printed material; CAI; Cue-See Projector	Army policy; steps in decision making; problem diagnosis.
3. Assigned readings	Bibliography; handouts of articles; case studies	Decision making; any cognitive material
4. Question-and-answer sessions:		
a. Oral questions and answers	Seminar	Unit EO policy problems
b. Oral questions, written answers	Follow-up to seminar	Unit EO policy problems
c. Written questions, oral answers	Pre-planned seminar	Unit EO policy problems
d. Written questions and answers	Newsletter; complaint box	Unit EO policy problems
5. Test-based instruction	Pre-training test, with content of training based on results	Policy; factual knowledge concerning various cultures, etc.
6. Demonstration	Display or performance	Cultural features, e.g., music, art, food, etc.
B. Experiential–Process Oriented–Cognitive	1. Structured exercise such as NASA exercise	Study of group decision processes
	2. Process observation	Sociometry of group
	3. Group self-evaluation	Adequacy of decision processes
	4. Game such as BAFA	Group processes in regard to formation of in- and out-groups, cultural differences.

C.	Experiential—Process Oriented—Effective	1. Role playing	Empathy with other roles
		2. T-Group	Group responses to individuals
D.	Experiential-Outcome Oriented-Cognitive	1. Johari window	Personal feedback
		2. In-basket exercise	Administration of an EO program
		3. Problem solving groups	Learning to improve the decision process
E.	Experiential—Outcome Oriented—Affective	1. Self-evaluation of attitudes	Identification of personal prejudices
		2. Stress management	Identification of sources of and solutions to EO-related stress in the unit
		3. Inter-racial confrontation	Expressing and recognizing prejudices

Individual EO Training in Army Schools

The first of the three components of the model involves equal opportunity education and training for students in the Army's service and professional schools. This component, Individual EO Training in Army Schools, is designed to provide EO education and training experiences to all Army members which are related to the EO-relevant situations they are likely to be involved in and the EO-relevant responsibilities they face on the job. Each element, block or module is tailored to a specific target audience or set of audiences defined as those students in a particular school or schools. There are three facets of equal opportunity to which this component is addressed: the elimination of personal discrimination, through both self-control of individual behaviors on the part of all Army members and the actions of Army leaders in controlling the behaviors of subordinates; the elimination of institutional discrimination in all Army activities; and the development and operation of effective equal opportunity programs at all levels of leadership. The objective of this component is to provide all Army members, and particularly Army leaders, supervisors and managers, with the awareness and the knowledge they need to behave in a non-discriminatory way on a personal basis and to perform their official duties in a non-discriminatory manner. This component attempts to tailor EO training to the level of responsibility of the student. The component's elements are summarized below.

1.   Objectives:

   a.   To provide each Army leader with a career-long set of EO education and training experience to enable him or her to:

   (1)   detect and eliminate personal discrimination;
   (2)   detect and eliminate institutional discrimination;
   (3)   establish and administer an effective EO Program as required by regulation.

   b.   To relate EO education and training to the general and specific job duties and responsibilities which occur at the various levels of leadership.

2.   Target Audiences: All Army members from the entering enlistee through noncommissioned, warrant and commissioned officers as they attend Army schools and training programs. These schools and programs include:

a. Enlisted Schools

    (1) Basic Training
    (2) Advanced Individual Training
    (3) Primary NCO Course
    (4) Basic NCO Course
    (5) Advanced NCO Course
    (6) Senior NCO Course
    (7) Sergeants-Major Academy

b. Warrant Officer Schools

    (1) Warrant Officer Candidate Course
    (2) Warrant Officer Pre-Appointment Course
    (3) Warrant Officer Post-Appointment Course
    (4) Warrant Officer Senior Course

c. Commissioned Officer Schools

    (1) Officer Candidate Course
    (2) Reserve Officer Training Course
    (3) U.S. Military Academy
    (4) Officer Basic Course
    (5) Officer Advanced Course
    (6) Command and General Staff College
    (7) Army War College
    (8) New General Officer Orientation Course

3. Training Content: The content of training will vary considerably from one school to another, depending on the level and type of responsibility for which students are being prepared. This includes both "awareness training" of a general nature, and specific job-related training of the following types:

a. Awareness Training

    (1) Cognitive
        (a) Policy
        (b) Facts about various cultures
        (c) Historical background of EO
        (d) Role of women in Army and society
        (e) Understanding basic concepts fundamental to an understanding of EO
            • prejudice
            • institutional discrimination

- personal discrimination
- stereotypes
- affirmative action
- reverse discrimination

    (f) Understanding the relationship between beliefs and decisions

    (g) Enumeration of areas where institutional discrimination can occur

    (h) Individual rights and responsibilities

    (i) Use of statistics in diagnosing institutional discrimination

    (j) Recognizing the effects of discrimination on mission effectiveness.

(2) Belief/attitude/perception

    (a) Training to counter stereotypes and other undesirable beliefs

    (b) Effects of perceptions and beliefs on behavior

(3) Behavior-oriented training

    (a) Defining acceptable and unacceptable behavior
- verbal (epithets, jokes, sexist language, etc.)
- non-verbal

    (b) Role of perceptions in interpreting another's behavior

    (c) Value of a personal behavioral example

    (d) Peer pressure and its effects on behavior

b.   Job-Related Training

(1) Training aimed at reducing personal discrimination

    (a) Army policy on personal discrimination

    (b) Establishing standards of conduct for the unit

    (c) Enforcing standards of conduct

    (d) Defining sanctions for violation of standards

    (e) Setting a personal behavioral example

    (f) Diagnosing unit climate on racism/sexism issues
- unit survey
- informal feedback
- personal observation

    (g) Developing solutions to problems of personal discrimination
- counseling
- training for unit
- training for chain of command
- modification of policies, procedures

(2) Training aimed at eliminating institutional discrimination
- (a) Recognizing institutional discrimination and how it affects the organization and the individual
- (b) Recognizing the role of the leader in eliminating institutional discrimination
- (c) Decisions which may result in institutional discrimination
- (d) Enumeration of decision areas to which the leader has input
- (e) Defining the leader's input to each type of decision
- (f) Defining rules for non-discriminatory decision-making

(3) Training aimed at development and administration of an EO Program
- (a) Understanding Army EO objectives
- (b) Establishing local EO objectives
  - for training
  - for affirmative actions
- (c) Identifying resources (E/T and AA)
  - in the unit
  - outside the unit
- (d) Staffing an EO Program
- (e) Defining staff responsibilities
- (f) Defining proper communication channels
- (g) Establishing a record-keeping system
- (h) Establishing procedures for handling of complaints
- (i) Publicizing the program

4. Training Methods: The full range of training methods and technologies will be applied in this component, under the general principle that training method be matched to the particular target audience and the particular content being presented. Some general principles are presented below:

a. Coverage of the basic objectives of Army EO policy might best be provided by means of a brief film in which high-ranking Army officials, The Secretary of the Army and the Chief of Staff of the Army, for example, outline clearly what is expected of Army members in regard to behavioral standards.

b. At the basic training level, the training and education must be made as persuasive as possible within a format which acquires and maintains student attention and takes as positive a view as possible; all of this must be done in a style suitable to a relatively unsophisticated audience. Perhaps new films on awareness should be developed and pilot-tested for effectiveness.

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c. The more advanced the level of the target audience, the more reliance should be put on such training approaches as realistic exercises in problem solving, group discussion, and self instruction through outside readings and programmed instruction, using readily available training technologies.

d. The tendency demonstrated in the past in some modules on EO in the service schools has been to portray EO as "nothing more than good leadership." While this, in itself, is not incorrect or inherently undesirable, it has resulted in the tendency of some leaders to ignore racial aspects of "leadership situations" where discrimination should have been the diagnosed problem cause; often leaders have passed off racial problems as "personality conflicts," "drunken brawls" or "just another barracks fight," rather than attending to the real underlying cause. This approach should be discouraged.

e. Undue repetition should be avoided from one module to that taught to the next school in a career sequence. Repetition of the key concepts must occur, but to the extent it is necessary, it should be done as subtly as possible. One of the most common criticisms of past efforts at EO education and training has been its boring and overly repetitive nature.

5. Delivery of Training: It is recommended that all EO training in this component of the model be presented only by DRRI-trained instructors.

6. Assessment of Training: Training conducted in this component of the model should be evaluated in the following ways:

a. Process Evaluation

(1) Local, by means of student and instructor critiques.
(2) TRADOC, by means of systematic research and evaluation.

b. Impact Assessment

(1) Local, by means of achievement tests, attitude inventories.
(2) DA, by means of longitudinal research on an Army-wide basis.

7. Special Considerations: It is recommended that this component of the model include a provision for the development of special orientations for incoming members of the numerous selection and placement boards which are integral to Army functioning.

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The recommended training package for each school has several content components. The specific learning objectives for each block of content are outlined in Appendix A to Volume I of this report.

Unit Training

The model's second major component is the Unit EO Training Component. The objective of this component is for unit commanders and managers to diagnose the EO-related problems and concerns extant within their units at any given time and to address those problems and concerns in a unit training program. The component has a dual focus, on both personal and institutional discrimination as perceived by the unit's members. The Unit EO Training Component of the model has the following characteristics:

1.. Overall objective: To eliminate both personal and institutional discrimination from the unit.

2. Specific objectives: Objectives for specific unit EO training sessions will be defined on an *ad hoc* basis, depending on the topic or problem area being addressed.

3. Overall approach: Unit EO training consists of a four-step process of:

   a. Problem diagnosis

   b. Training program design

   c. Implementation of training

   d. Follow-up assessment of process and impacts

4. Target audiences: Unit members can be subdivided into five groups, based on rank or grade; any one or more of these groups might be a target audience for a given topic. The groups are:

   a. Junior enlisted (E1-E4)

   b. Junior NCO (E5-E6)

   c. Senior NCO (E7-E9)

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d.   Company grade officers

e.   Field grade officers

5.   Problem diagnosis methods: Unit-specific problems may be identified through a variety of formal and informal methods, including:

    a.   a Unit Diagnosic Survey;

    b.   an Equal Opportunity Council;

    c.   active efforts by the chain of command to detect incipient problems, through verbal and non-verbal behavioral signs;

    d.   informal conversations and interviews; and

    e.   generally keeping vertical communication channels open.

6.   Content of Unit EO Training: Specific training content for each session will be determined by the problem diagnosis process. Generic categories of content for unit EO training are listed below (and in Volume I, pages 60-67, with examples):

    a.   Personal race and sex discrimination in the unit.

    b.   Institutional race and sex discrimination in the unit.

    c.   Personal race and sex discrimination on post, outside the unit.

    d.   Institutional race and sex discrimination on post outside the unit.

    e.   Race and sex discrimination in the off-post civilian community.

    f.   Supplementary topics to generate and increase awareness of EO subject matter as it pertains to unit life.

7.   Training methods: Any of the methods described on pages 30-31 may be applicable to unit EO training. The best method for each session will be determined by a variety of local conditions and circumstances, including:

    a.   the particular training topic;

    b.   the time available for preparation;

c.   the personnel and other resources available;

d.   the particular target audience.

8.   Delivery component: The unit commander is personally responsible for unit EO training and must make the best possible use of available resources. Chief among those resources is the Unit Discussion Leader.

9.   Assessment component: The Unit Training Component should be evaluated in terms of both process and impacts. Each individual session should be evaluated as follows:

a.   Process evaluation by means of:

(1)   participant critique sheets;
(2)   a post-mortem by knowledgeable observers.

b.   Impact assessment by means of:

(1)   any of the problem diagnosis methods described above;
(2)   specific follow-up of results as compared to the specific objectives established prior to the session.

10.   Additional recommendations: It is also recommended that:

a.   Unit Discussion Leader selection criteria be made more stringent, since this is the chief resource the commander has and is likely to have in the future;

b.   UDL training be upgraded in quality, and content be modified to include the use of the Unit Diagnostic Survey;

c.   training materials be developed on each of the general and specific subject areas outlined on pages 62-65;

d.   these training materials be made widely available to unit commanders;

e.   training received by unit commanders include coverage of the Unit Training Component and the commander's role in it; and

f.   training received by all present and future members of the unit chain of command emphasize the institutional component of discrimination and the leader's role in eliminating it.

EO Training for Unit Supervisors,
Leaders and Managers

The third major component of the model is local training, at each installation, for Army supervisors, leaders and managers. The chief objective of this component is to provide these local decisionmakers with a training experience wherein each individual can relate the formal school training he or she has received in EO to the specific requirements of his or her present duty assignment. A second objective is to create a team approach to EO in the unit, based on a common understanding of the EO Program and of how each leader, at each echelon, fits into the total picture in regard to the aims of eliminating personal and institutional discrimination and maintaining an effective EO Program. This component has two major parts, Unit Leader Training for leaders at the "work unit" level, up to and including company-size units, and Executive Seminars for senior leaders. These are described in summary fashion below.

Unit Leader Training:

1. Objectives:

    a. To relate prior EO education and training experiences to current job responsibilities.

    b. To make leaders aware of their roles and responsibilities in Army efforts to eliminate discrimination.

    c. To enhance the ability of the unit chain of command to work as a team in eliminating discrimination.

2. Target Audience: All leaders in company-equivalent units or work groups who have some input to decisions which affect other soldiers' working lives or careers, in the short or long term.

3. Training Content: This module has two types of content, described below:

    a. Awareness training, whose objectives are to strengthen leader awareness of:

        (1) the concepts of personal and institutional discrimination;
        (2) cultural diversity in the Army;
        (3) the changing roles of women in society and in the Army; and
        (4) the role of the leader in the Army's EO Program.

b.   Job-related training, whose objectives are:

   (1)   to enable each unit leader to define each type of decision he
         or she participates in and the exact nature of that participation,
         i.e., initiation or recommendation, participation as a member
         of a group (board, panel, council, etc.), approval or denial of
         recommendations initiated by others, or total control over the
         decision.

   (2)   to enable each unit leader to identify the possible discrimina-
         tory results of each of those decision inputs.

   (3)   to enable each unit leader to identify all possible ways in which
         personal and institutional bias might enter into the decision
         processes identified above.

   (4)   To enable each unit leader to identify methods for detecting
         and preventing personal and institutional bias from entering
         into the decision processes.

   (5)   To enable each unit leader to define his or her role in a dis-
         crimination free decision process, as a member of the leader-
         ship team.

4.   Training Methods: Recommended methods include: lecture; guided group
     discussion; structured exercises; role playing; task-oriented work groups,
     each tailored to specific items of content.

5.   Delivery Component: Training will be delivered by DRRI-trained
     instructors.

6.   Assessment:

   a.   Process evaluation, through student critiques and instructor self-
         criticism.

   b.   Impact evaluation, through analysis of statistical reports, unit
         surveys.

7.   Potential Problem Areas:

   a.   Scheduling of individual participants for training to maximize the
         impact on the individual and the unit.

   b.   Scheduling of unit "teams" to be minimally disruptive to unit
         operations.

   c.   Probable shortage of qualified instructors.

Executive Seminars:

1. Objectives:

   a. To relate prior EO education and training experiences to current job responsibilities.

   b. To make senior leaders and managers aware of the role of policy in eliminating discrimination.

   c. To make senior leaders aware of the importance of high-level command support to the success of the Army EO Program and to increase that support.

2. Target Audiences:

   a. Division level

      (1) The Division Commander.
      (2) The Division Commander's principal staff officers.
      (3) The Command Sergeant-Major.
      (4) All commanders and Sergeants-Major of brigades and brigade-equivalent units.

   b. MACOM level

      (1) The MACOM Commander.
      (2) The MACOM Commander's principal staff.
      (3) The Command Sergeant-Major.
      (4) All Division Commanders in the MACOM and their Command Sergeants-Major.

3. Training Content: Variable, but with emphasis on:

   a. current status reports;

   b. EO implications of policy;

   c. command support for EO.

4. Training Methods and Personnel: A variety of combinations, including presentations by guest speakers, workshop problem solving sessions, guided discussions, with the participation, but not necessarily control, of a qualified EO specialist.

5. Assessment:

   a. Process evaluation through participant critiques and self-criticism.

   b. Impact assessment by follow-up of established plan of action, including goals, tasks, timetables, and responsible individuals.

Additional Considerations

The Unit Leader Training and Executive Seminars should be closely tied in with orientation briefings for new commanders and with command and staff meetings at brigade-equivalent level.

Delivery of Training

The comprehensive nature of the proposed model for EO education and training in the Army requires an equally comprehensive approach to planning for the delivery of training within the three major components of the model.

Within the Individual Training in Army Schools component, it is recommended that EO education and training be delivered exclusively by graduates of the Defense Race Relations Institute (DRRI). This could be done either by assigning a special team of DRRI-trained instructors to each school, or by requiring that those instructors to be assigned to a service or professional school for the purpose of instructing on any topic, but particularly if they are to be assigned to EO instruction, be required to attend DRRI. The subject of equal opportunity, by virtue of its complex and sensitive nature, requires that an instructor have a thorough grounding in human relations and EO principles prior to any assignment which requires an effort to convey those principles to others.

Unit EO Training at the local level will require that Unit Discussion Leaders be given a prominent role, in addition to the role already required of members of the chain of command. This, in turn, requires that selection procedures and criteria for UDL training be more stringent, more clearly and uniformly specified, and more strictly enforced. It also requires that UDL training and Unit Supervisor, Leader and Manager training spend some time on the use of the Unit Diagnostic Survey and other means for diagnosing and assessing unit EO conditions. Unit leaders must also, of course, learn how best to use the resources available in the unit, including the UDL.

Finally, the Supervisor, Leader and Manager Training component must be conducted by exprerienced DRRI graduates. The same is true of Executive Seminars.

The implications of the recommendations for delivery of EO training under the model must be carefully considered in terms of modifications to DRRI and UDL training. (See Volume I, Chapter VI.)

Training Assessment and Feedback

Continuous assessment of EO training and education and feeding back of assessment results to the modification of training methods and content are required if the EO education and training program is to remain flexible, adaptable to changing conditions, and effective in the elimination of discrimination from the Army.

Each of the major EO education and training components must be evaluated from three perspectives: attendance by individuals; training methods and approaches; and content of the POI.

Each of these aspects of program assessment must be carried out at several levels:

- each school or installation must monitor its own program;

- TRADOC must monitor and evaluate training in the schools;

- Each MACOM must monitor and evaluate unit EO training at its installations; and

- DA/DCSPER must be responsible for overall, long-term monitoring of Army-wide impacts of training.

Each major component of the model has specific methods by means of which the assessment may be accomplished. Thorough evaluation strategy requires a multi-faceted approach in which each method is employed in ways best suited to it, and in which the data from all possible sources are combined to provide feedback to each of the levels described above. The methods include:

1. Process evaluation

   a. Student critiques

   b. Self-evaluation by local instructors

   c. Evaluation by outside observers, e.g., from TRADOC/EO

d. Review of student critiques and local evaluation results by TRADOC/EO

e. Independent evaluation, e.g., by ARI.

2. Impact assessment

a. Pre- and post-training tests of knowledge, measures of attitudes and perceptions

b. Local evaluation against specific learning objectives

c. Longitudinal evaluation of outcomes by an outside agency, e.g., ARI.

d. Longitudinal evaluation of MACOM and DA statistics by appropriate agencies, e.g., FORSCOM/EO, TRADOC/EO, DA/DCSPER, etc.

Process evaluation attempts to maintain and upgrade the quality of the training experience through constant monitoring and improvement of training methods. Impact assessment seeks to insure that the long-term desired outcomes of the comprehensive training model are being achieved as well as those for each individual module in the model.

Assessment must take place in a planned and systematic manner. This will require the development of materials and procedures for evaluation of each separate training module. Assessment materials and procedures must be ready for implementation prior to the initiation of training under this model.

The ultimate goal of all aspects of the assessment component is to provide feedback to decisionmaking at all levels so that improvements in the EO education and training program can be made in a timely manner.

CHAPTER VI
FUTURE DEVELOPMENT OF THE MODEL

The work reported on in this document represents only the first in a series of steps required on the part of the Army if a total, comprehensive model for EO education and training such as that proposed here is to be implemented. The model as it exists now is merely a skeletal infrastructure of which much further development is required. Specifically, the areas in which this development must take place include:

- the creation of detailed outlines of lesson plans for use in school training, and development of these outlines into usable lesson plans;

- the creation and development of lesson plan outlines to be made available to unit commanders and discussion leaders for use in unit training;

- the development of lesson plans and procedural guidelines for use in local training of unit leaders;

- further investigation of the best training methods and technologies for use with certain content and specified target audiences;

- further consideration of personnel requirements and their implications for DRRI and UDL training;

- development of a plan for the systematic, ongoing evaluation of program processes and impacts at all levels;

- development of evaluation instrumentation for local, MACOM and DA assessments of training;

- pilot testing of training modules;

- pilot testing of evaluation methods and instruments; and

- ultimate implementation of the model.

Lesson Plan Development

The training model is complex in its structure and its philosophy, which is one of comprehensive coverage in a systematic way, with minimal overlap between modules, but maximum reinforcement of basic principles and discrimination-free procedures. The development of lesson plans for future use in implementing the model will be a gargantuan task. But the Army must take especial care to see that the task is done in a careful, professional way. This can be a piecemeal approach only to a certain extent. Given a set of lesson plan outlines developed by a single source, insuring that the total model concept is preserved, these outlines can be turned over to experienced curriculum developers knowledgeable about specific content areas. Once the detailed lesson plans have been completed, they must again be synthesized into a total package which best serves the objectives of the training model.

In addition to the development of plans for the formal, school-based elements of instruction, similar steps must be carried out for local unit and leader lesson plans.

Each module, as it is developed, should be pilot tested on a confined, controlled basis, as in a laboratory setting. Once initial improvements are made on the basis of pilot tests, larger-scale field testing would be appropriate and desirable. Only then can the Army be relatively sure of the quality and likely success of the total education and training package.

Training Methods and Technologies

An integral part of lesson plan development will, of necessity, be the identification of training methods appropriate to particular audience-content matches. It should be obvious that not every group will benefit equally from the same approach to the same subject. This is, again, a task which can best be done by persons experienced in curriculum development and in the application of a variety of training methods in an organizational change context. The total lesson plan package to be pilot tested and field tested must, then, have the benefit of a fully-developed plan for implementation of the model, including training methods and technologies tailored to specific needs associated with each module.

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The Delivery Component of the Model

It was stressed in the previous chapter that the delivery of training under a model such as the one proposed may very well require some changes in the number of instructor personnel who are available to support the model and in the training they receive for the task of implementing training under the model.

Particular attention must be paid to the personnel requirements of the model as they impact on the selection of Army members for attendance at DRRI and upon the nature of the training they receive there.

Unit Discussion Leader selection and training must also undergo close and careful scrutiny as the UDL becomes a more important and central element in the unit training process, relieving chain of command personnel of many of the responsibilities associated with EO unit training.

Program Evaluation

As the study of program evaluation philosophy and methods has developed over the past several years into virtually a separate social science discipline, it has become increasingly apparent that program evaluation plans, ideally, are developed concurrently with the design of the program under development. This allows constant interchange of ideas between program operators and program evaluators which can be of benefit to both. It also allows pre-program baseline measures to be acquired in uncontaminated form so that, over time, trends and changes in those baseline measures can be noted and associated in a systematic way with program operations.

It cannot be stressed too strongly that this approach must be taken in the planning for evaluation of EO training under the proposed comprehensive model. Each module must have its own evaluation objectives, measures based on those objectives, and methods for acquiring those measures. These methods and instruments must be available as the lesson modules themselves become available so that they, too, can be pilot tested and field tested as part of the total training package.

In addition, each echelon at which evaluation will occur must have a pre-planned approach. This includes each school, each installation, each major command and DA/DCSPER. All of this, too, is an integral and necessary part of the total training package.

Obviously, then, much work remains to be done in preparation for implementing the EO training model. If planned out carefully in advance, however, the effort invested will pay off in an Army with higher morale and a higher state of readiness to perform the mission of national defense.

APPENDIX A

BIBLIOGRAPHY: SELECTED LITERATURE ON INDIVIDUAL
ATTITUDE AND BEHAVIOR CHANGE RELEVANT TO
RACE RELATIONS/EQUAL OPPORTUNITY EDUCATION
AND TRAINING

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APPENDIX B

REVIEW OF SELECTED LITERATURE ON ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE
RELEVANT TO RACE RELATIONS/EQUAL OPPORTUNITY
EDUCATION AND TRAINING

APPENDIX B

REVIEW OF SELECTED LITERATURE ON ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE RELEVANT TO RACE RELATIONS/EQUAL OPPORTUNITY EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Introduction

The purpose of this literature review is to illustrate the theoretical framework used in the development of the EO training model by stating recommendations and propositions concerning appropriate components of the model. In developing the model, it was our general thesis that EO Education and Training must be seen as an integral, fundamental part of an organizational change process accomplished through the medium of changes in the behavior of individuals. The focus of this literature review is on elements of individual change and organizational change as they relate to EO education and training in the Army. Heuristic theories to be used here are mostly based in the disciplines of psychology and sociology. Throughout this conceptualization, the dual nature of EO problems recurs. Individual people behave, but organizations must respond to that behavior. It is felt that EO education and training efforts should be targeted so that both individuals and organizations are affected.

Review of the Literature

It must be noted that most of the literature to be reviewed here does not deal with the situation as it exists in the Army because the Army is a different type of organization than most of those considered. It is useful, however, to review potential sources of information that have implications for the kind of education and training being considered here. In addition, the propositions and recommendations that will come out of this literature review are not to be mistaken as attempts to prescribe for the Army how it should be organized or by what procedures it should conduct its business. A training model for the Army must accept certain conditions as given and must operate within those constraints. There are two general approaches to studying organizations—the *goal-centered* approach and the *natural systems* approach.

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The goal-centered approach ". . . makes a reasonably explicit assumption that the organization is in the hands of a rational set of decision makers who have in mind a set of goals they wish to pursue."[1] Once these goals are specified, it is possible to plan adequate strategies for attaining them. The concern here is with maintaining a prescribed equilibrium that emphasizes the *static* relationships in an organization.

On the other hand, the natural systems approach makes the assumption that it is not possible to define a finite number of organizational goals in any meaningful manner. In this view, the organization should adopt the overall goal of maintaining a viable structure over time—i.e., adapting its structure to counteract internal and external disturbances.[2] Here we are concerned with the *dynamic* or changing relations that exist between an organization and its members. Items for review under this approach consist of such things as degree of conflict among work groups, the nature of communications, the level of racial tension, the percentage of jobs that are filled by people with the appropriate skill levels, job satisfaction of the employees, etc.

As noted in the main body of this volume, the most glaring deficiency in the present EO training model is the total lack of any basic assumptions or theory about the dynamic relations involved in the *process* of organizational change. In this regard, the review will focus on the natural systems approach.

The most prominent aspect of this approach deals with organizational development. The term organizational development means different things to different people. In the most general sense, it could refer to *any* activity designed to effect some changes in an organization. For present purposes, however, we restrict organizational development to a class of behavioral science-type intervention techniques designed to change the behavior of individuals—and, in turn, to affect organizational changes.

Griener and Barnes outline general change processes. There are two objectives in their discussion: (1) change in the level of organizational adaptation; and (2) change in interpersonal behavior patterns. The latter objective, operating at the micro level, is concerned with social and personal learning processes. Historically, this learning proceeded without formal educational provisions. It was thought that managers would internalize appropriate change-oriented attitudes from on-the-job experiences during change procedures. Recently, there have been, however, more formal educational methods used in preparations for change (personal counseling, sensitivity training or the Managerial Grid). These efforts were developed to provide guidance for managers in executing change efforts.[3]

At the macro level the question involves the influence of power within the organization. It must be realized that large numbers of managers cannot learn and apply new forms of operation unless powerful top managers are willing to give their encouragement and set consistent examples in their own behavior. In addition, there are areas of decision-making concern for the involved manager:

- diagnosis of organizational problem;
- planning for change;
- launching change; and
- following up on change.

H.S. Leavitt, writing in terms of applied organizational change in industry, makes the distinction between structural and people approaches to change.

The structural approach emphasizes: systems of communications; systems of authority; and systems of work flow. The structural change principles of "classical" organizational theorists have suggested the optimizing of organization performance by optimizing structure. They used deductive methods ". . . carrying out their analyses from task backwards to appropriate divisions of labor and systems of authority." One improves performance of task by clearly defining the jobs of people, the relationship among those jobs, specific areas of responsibility and other coordinating mechanisms for effecting structural change.[4]

One of these coordinating mechanisms is decentralization. For the classicists, decentralization reduces the cost of coordination and increases controllability over subunits. It can be thought of as a way to open organizations to change through local autonomy. It should be noted, however, that the resulting flexibility may be harmful to the organization in that extreme subvariations spread things out to the extent that members lose sight of change objectives.

According to Leavitt, "The people approaches try to change organizations by first changing the behavior of the organization members." Historically, the manipulative people approach responded to the question: "How do we get people to do what we want them to do?" Dale Carenegie's *How to Win Friends and Influence People,* first published in 1936, emphasized influence-managing procedures in face-to-face interactions. This approach became a respectable area of social-scientific research.[5]

However, substantial though this approach was as a starting point, it failed to examine the effect of power in these micro-level relationships. Leavitt's power-equalization (PE) people approach has three levels of emphasis: individual; group; and organization.

At the individual level, PE is realized through client-centered counseling.[6] In this approach the individual and not the problem is the focus. Efforts are directed toward the greater independence and integration of the individual which will aid in self-growth.

At the group level we are concerned with the development of laboratory training through group methods. These activities have become a core tool for effecting organizational change. Group leaders attempt to change groups by taking a secondary role in training sessions, allowing the group to develop and solve their problems. In this way, the leader acts more as a "resource person" than an instructor in a classroom situation.

Although at the organizational level the limits of power equalization are not clearly defined, this approach strongly encourages the development of organizational processes and leadership beneficial to the organization's members. For example, McGregor's exposition of participative theory "Y" over authoritarian theory "X", ". . . very clearly implies a shift from an all-powerful superior dealing with impotent subordinates to something much more like a balance of power."[7] In like manner, Likert's development of his Interaction-Influence Theory was based on the principle that an organization must ". . . ensure a maximum probability that in all interactions and all relationships with the organization each member will, in light of his background, values and expectations, view the experience as supportive and one which builds and maintains his sense of personal worth and importance."[8]

Equally important when considering behavioral science interventions, is a concern with the specification of behavior objectives. In this regard, the basic message is that ". . . in judging the effectiveness of an 'intervention' or some kind of experimental treatment to change behavior, it is necessary to specify beforehand the specific behavioral objectives of the intervention." This theme is best articulated in the research and development of programmed instruction techniques. In this regard, researchers used the term *terminal behaviors* to refer to specific things that the learner should be able to do when the sequence is successfully completed. Concerning the applicability of learning principles to military training, Gagné argued that unless we clearly specify what is to be learned, it is nearly impossible to design an effective training program or evaluate its effects. In addition, the precise description of what is to be learned is considered more important than the application of psychological or educational theory.[10]

Practical experience concerning complex organizations becomes evident in the Beer and Huse discussion of a systems approach to organizational development. They

describe an organizational development program that they, as change agents, initiated in a plant that designs and manufactures complex instruments for medical and laboratory use. In their view, a systems approach ". . . requires that mutually consistent changes in *all* subsystems be made in effecting the organizational processes. . ."[11] They use an input-process-output model that requires planned change efforts. The input consists of employee needs, expectations and abilities as raw materials. The process operates at both the structural and interpersonal level. Output consists of productivity, commitment, motivations, satisfactions, innovation, etc.

A basic notion in the development of this program is that an organization is an open system which, from the human point of view, converts individual needs and expectations into outputs. In this respect, ". . . the adjustment of organizational processes to reflect more accurately the needs of the internal environment and of the persons in it is one of the key objectives of this OD program."[12] For example, when speaking of structural processes, the emphasis is on:

- improving communications;
- job enrichment;
- mutual goal-setting.

In the present study, there were attempts to open up communications at all levels. Weekly and monthly meetings that involved the plant manager, production and clerical employeees, and first-line supervisors began as one-way communications downward. Gradually this mood shifted to two-way communications about quality, schedules, and production problems.[13]

Job enrichment, or, as it is called in the plant, "the total job concept" is crucial for psychological growth and development. There were numerous job enrichment efforts in this OD program. For example, " . . . in one department, girls individually assemble instruments containing thousands of parts and costing several thousand dollars. The change here allowed production workers to have greater responsibility for quality checks and calibration (instead of trained technicians).[14] Other efforts include the removal—in some cases—of quality control inspection from departmental to worker level and the organizing of departments into autonomous work groups with total responsibility for scheduling, assembly, and training. Mutual goal setting has also been widely adopted. What happens in this procedure is that ". . . instead of standards established by engineering . . . goals for each department are derived from plant goals, and individual goals for the week or month

are developed in individual departments through discussions between the boss and subordinates."[15] This type of activity permits an increased understanding by the individual worker of how their goals fit into the plant goals and enables them to work on their own without close supervision.

The interpersonal processes primarily deal with action-oriented changes prior to attempts at cognitive change. Beer and Huse assert that ". . . if one starts with cognitive facts and theory (as in seminars), this may be less effective and less authentic than starting with the individual's own here-and-now behavior in the ongoing job 'situation.'"[16] In this case, an external change agent makes specific behavioral recommendations to an internal change leader (the plant manager in this study) who in turn acts upon these suggestions. If the manager is successful in the initial attempt, this would lead to another attempt, as well as a change in attitude toward OD.

Finally, on the output dimensions, Beer and Huse feel that there is considerable data to support the thesis that change has occurred and new managerial approaches have created an effective organization. For example, ". . . turnover has been considerably reduced; specific changes in job structure, organizational change, or group process have resulted in measurable productivity changes of up to 50 percent . . . and recent changes in the Instrument Department have resulted in productivity and quality improvement."[17]

Propositions and Recommendations

Now that we have accumulated these theoretical orientation, what implications do they have for an EO training model? What will be the content of the propositions associated with this model?

We begin with the proposition that a comprehensive EO training model must require the total saturation of the Army Education and Training Program with equal opportunity principles and practices. The current Army education and training program consists of a sequential learning process wh ch involves levels of achievement, specific prerequisites for a given level of training and explicit assessments of competence. Soldiers are selectively exposed to career development activities that prepare them for ascension through the ranks with an appropriate attainment of skills at each level of achievement. Equal opportunity training is a near-tangential part of this system as it stands.

For example, recent research[18] has revealed that EO training, as a general rule is only reluctantly incorporated into course curricula at the Army service schools. It tends to be perceived as low priority subject matter which is being imposed on the Army, and is not mission- or MOS-relevant. As a rule, the training that is conducted is not being taught by DRRI-trained instructors. An improved training model will include the institutionalization of EO into all aspects of the Army education and training program.

Specifically, we will look briefly at the Non-Commissioned Officers Educational System (NCOES) for combat arms MOS and combat support MOS in an effort to highlight the supreme importance of EO training.

The NCOES prepares NCO's for the skill level appropriate for the next higher grade. With the exception of entry level training, participants for courses in this system are selected by their commander. Movement to the next level is dependent on the performance on skill qualification test (SQT) results. The training levels within this system are: entry level; primary level; basic level; and senior level.

At the entry level, the soldier receives basic combat training (BCT) and advanced infantry training (AIT). He enters at grade level E-1. After attaining MOS-related skills, the soldier moves to Skill Level 1—assignable to unit. Equal opportunity training is minimally present at this level of the NCOES. Due to the reduction in total EO training time Army-wide, only two hours of EO training is given at basic training. In order to firmly establish EO principles and practices, it is recommended that the Army expand its curricula at this level of training to facilitate the behavior necessary for creating harmonious intergroup relations. This initial commitment will also serve to illustrate the importance placed on reducing tensions that tend to suppress unit effectiveness.

At the first primary level, the soldier receives training in the Primary NCO Course (PNCOC). He entres at grade E-4; Skill Level 1. Upon completion of this course, the soldier moves to Skill Level 2—eligible for E-5. Presently there is very little EO training in the PNCOC and some officials at TRADOC see no place for such training since this course, as it stands, is MOS-specific. The implication is that EO-related courses are *not* MOS-specific. The more correct statement suggests that EO principles and practices *are* relevant to a given MOS. The leadership skills gained at PNCOC must include the tools necessary to lead a diverse group of human beings into stressful combat situations. A squad leader or fire team leader must be familiar with the tendencies and manifestations of racial tensions

within his sphere of influence. It is detrimental to the unit's mission if this subsystem does not operate effectively.

At the second primary level the soldier receives primary leadership course (PLC) training. The PLC stresses supervisory skills for CS/CSS personnel. There is no EO training in the PLC and, again, TRADOC officials see no place for such training. In addition these officials have stated that an EO module for the PLC is in preparation at ADMINCEN. However, a fact-finding visit to ADMINCEN revealed that this agency is *not* developing an EO module for the Primary Leadership Course! Who *is* developing an EO module for the PLC? This mystery points to the need for a more complete delineation of specific responsibilities for the operation and maintenance of an EO training program. It also points to a need for clarity concerning objectives of different parts of the equal opportunity program as well as the articulation of different levels of education and training programs into a coherent, integrated whole.

EO-related courses at the basic and advanced levels suffer from the same state of virtual non-existence. Courses that are being taught are not conducted by DRRI-trained instructors. This, of course, reduces the impact of EO training.

This state of affairs leads us to recommend that the Army's goal in EO should be to institutionalize it into the Education and Training Program so that every leader automatically considers the EO aspects of any decision, just as every engineer considers environmental impact before starting a project.

. A second proposition states that a comprehensive EO training module must require: (1) changes in interpersonal behavioral patterns; and (2) changes in the level of organizational adaptation.

In the first instance, elements of the training model for leaders and managers should serve to reduce any discrepancy between what they say they do and what they actually do. The effectiveness of a leader or manager is determined by the ability of that individual to understand accurately another individual or social group. Also of crucial importance is the ability to behave appropriately, or to respond appropriately, in the light of one's understanding of the person or persons he is dealing with. On a day-to-day routine basis, supervisors, managers, and leaders make decisions which affect Army members— decisions concerning such things as advancement, training, punishment, assignments, awards

and numerous other integral and important aspects of Army life. An EO training program should aim for the realization by these personnel of the impact of their decisions on the reduction of institutional discrimination and racial tensions—both crucial elements in the enhancement of mision readiness and effectiveness.

In terms of level of organizational adaptation, we are first concerned with explicit command support for EO training. Powerful top managers must give their encouragement and set consistent examples in their own behavior for a highly institutionalized EO education and training program. This may be realized through a specific delineation of the following areas of concern for the involved manager:

- diagnosis of EO-related organizational problems;
- planning for changes to deal with these problems;
- launching change; and
- following up on change.

The institutionalization of such diagnostic assessment procedures will illustrate the Army's commitment to equal opportunity issues.

A third proposition states that a comprehensive EO training model must emphasize structural and people aspects of equal opportunity issues.

One of the coordinating mechanisms for the structural aspect concerns decentralization. Decentralization reduces the cost of coordination and increases controllability over subunits. In this regard we recommend increasing the emphasis on the role of the unit commander in establishing EO principles within his sphere of influence. Marshall wrote of the unit commander: ". . . the touchstone of his success is the interior working of the company; it requires the maximum of his attention. He enlarges his ability to command by advancing his knowledge of the character and potential of his men and by encouraging his lieutenants to do likewise."[19]

Concerning the people aspect of EO issues we look at the group and the organization. At the group level we are concerned with the development of training through group methods. We recommend that a unit training session, designed to deal with EO-related problems should be attended by leaders and supervisors of the unit. Their presence reinforces the perception of the group that they are concerned aboutthe problems faced by

their subordinates. It also reduces the perception that junior enlisted personnel are being "forced" to attend while the senior personnel "get over." Moreover, on the organizational dimension, it leaves the impression that the Army is supportive of its members and willing to exert effort toward creating and maintaining a sense of personal worth and importance in the individual soldier.

Summary

As noted earlier, the material presented here provided the basis for the conceptual framework within which the comprehensive EO education and training model was developed. Individual and organizational change were considered essential components of this framework. Although some of these materials do not directly apply to the Army as a military organization, the use of them within this framework provided the basis for matching EO change-inducing actions to the constraints and characteristics of the Army's education and training system.

Footnotes

[1] John P. Campbell, "On the Nature of Organizational Effectiveness," in Paul S. Goodman and Johannes M. Pennings (eds.), *New Perspectives on Organizational Effectiveness* (San Francisco, Calif.: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1977), p. 19.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 20.

[3] L.E. Griener and L.B. Barnes, "Organizational Change and Development," in Dalton, *et al.* (eds.), *Organizational Change and Development* (Homewood, Ill.: Dorsey Press, 1970), p. 7.

[4] H.J. Leavitt, "Applied Organizational Change in Industry," in J.G. March (ed.), *Handbook of Organizations* (Chicago, Ill.: Rand McNally, 1965), p. 1146.

[5] *Ibid.*, p. 1152.

[6] See C.R. Rogers, *Counseling and Psychotherapy* (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1942); and C.R. Rogers, *Client Centered Therapy* (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1951).

[7] D. McGregor, "The Human Side of Enterprise," in Bennis, *et al.* (eds.), *The Planning of Change* (New York: Holt, 1961), p. 115.

[8] R. Likert, *New Patterns of Mangement* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961), p. 103.

[9] Campbell, *op. cit.*, p. 26.

[10] R.M. Gagné, "Military Training and Principles of Learning," *American Psychologist, 17* (1962), pp. 83-91.

[11] M. Beer and E.F. Huse, "A Systems Approach to Organization Development," *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 8,* 11 (1972), p. 79.

[12] *Ibid.*, p. 82.

[13] *Ibid.*, p. 85.

[14] *Ibid.*, p. 90.

[15] *Ibid.*, p. 175.

[16]*Ibid.*, p. 192.

[17]*Ibid.*, p. 193.

[18]William S. Edmonds and Peter G. Nordlie, *Analysis of Individual Race Relations and Equal Opportunity Training in Army Schools* (McLean, Va.: Human Sciences Research, Inc., 1977).

[19]S.L.A. Marshall, *Men Against Fire* (New York: Morrow, 1947), p. 153.